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Karlinsky, Stewart Sheldon

COMPLEXITY IN THE FEDERAL INCOME TAX LAW ATTRIBUTABLE TO THE CAPITAL GAIN AND LOSS PREFERENCE: A MEASUREMENT MODEL

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COMPLEXITY IN THE FEDERAL INCOME TAX LAW ATTRIBUTABLE TO
THE CAPITAL GAIN AND LOSS PREFERENCE: A MEASUREMENT MODEL

Stewart S. Karlinsky

A dissertation presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Business Administration, New York University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT
COMPLEXITY IN THE FEDERAL INCOME TAX LAW ATTRIBUTABLE TO THE CAPITAL GAIN AND LOSS

PREFERENCE: A MEASUREMENT MODEL
STEWART S. KARLINSKY

This thesis applies content analysis to measure complexity in the federal income tax law. It describes, analyzes, and measures the specific impact of the capital gain and loss preference on the tax law's complexity. The term preference is used in ins economic sense of an item being treated different than similar items.

This thesis presents an updated Adam Smith model of six criteria for a theoretically 'good' income tax: 1. Equality 2. Certain, not Arbitrary
3. Convenience of Tax Payment 4. Minimum Administrative Cost 5. Fiscal Policy Tool 6. Economic Neutrality. Within this framework the history and justifications for the capital gain and loss preference are critically analyzed.

The content analysis measurement model is applied in a two step process. First, a weighting of each income tax code section's complexity is determined by counting the number of paragraphs in the code section and its underlying regulations. Second, all 584 income tax code sections and their regulations are analyzed to determine the amount of paragraph complexity attributable to the theme, 'capital gain and loss' special treatment.

Using this complexity model, a tax expenditure/complexity (TEC) model is developed to measure relative efficiency of various tax preferences. If the TEC ratio is high, then it is an indication that the preference is efficient. If it is low, then it is an indication of inefficiency. Thus, if capital gain and loss preference yields $\$ 12$ billion a year in tax expenditures, and its complexity weight is $15 \%$, then its TEC ratio is $\$ 80$ billion. If tax exempt bond

Abstract (2)

Interest costs $\$ 8$ billion a year and its complexity is $3 \%$, its ratio would be $\$ 267$ billion.

The findings confirm the hypothesis that the capital gain and loss preference severely complicates the income tax law in both absolute and relative terms, that it has a low TEC ratio which indicates inefficiency, and that the special treatment is not justified under an updated Smithian model.
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## CHAPTER I

## Introduction

The issue of complexity in the income tax law has been paid little more than lip service in the public finance and taxation literature. ${ }^{1}$ This is particularly true of the complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preferential tax provisions, ${ }^{2}$ which has been described as "singly responsible for the largest amount of complexity" in the tax law. ${ }^{3}$ Recently, the problems and costs ${ }^{4}$ of complexity have received increased recognition. 5

This thesis describes, analyzes and presents a measure of the degree of complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preference. The complexity caused by the capital gain and loss provisions will be assessed by using con-
${ }^{1}$ See the New York State Bar Association Study of 1971 in Tax Law Review 27 (1972): 327; the Tax Simplification Act of 1977 P.L. 95-30; various congressional committee reports on depreciation and installment sales; Volume 34 of Law and Contemporary Problem (1969) which is devoted to complexity in the tax law, for discussions in general terms of the evils of complexity in the tax law.

2
The terms 'preferential' and 'preference item' are used throughout the paper in their economic or layman's sense of an item being treated different and more favorably than other items, rather than in their Internal Revenue Code Section 57 tax definition. At this point, suffice it to say that capital gains are taxed at a significantly lower tax rate than ordinary income, while capital losses are treated less favorably than ordinary losses.
3
Stanley S. Surrey, "Definitional Problems of Capital Gain Taxation", Harvard Law Review 69 (1956): 985. Since 1956, the tax law has become even more complex with the introduction of the depreciation recapture rules and other special capital gain and loss provisions.

4
See for example Charles S. Lyon, "Tax Blunders: Treasury Should Reduce the Cost", Taxes - The Tax Magazine 45 (September 1967): 575.

5
See Boris Bittker, "Tax Reform and Tax Simplification", University of Miami Law Review 29 (1974): 1, and Jack Schroeder's "Potential Sinplification of the Federal Income Tax Law by Eliminating Special Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses", (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1975).
tent analysis. ${ }^{6}$ A tax expenditure/complexity (TEC) model ${ }^{7}$ is developed to relate the tax savings realized from a tax preference with the complexity caused by that savings in order to weigh the relative efficiency of various tax preference items. The methodology applied in this study can be extended to other tax preferences, as well as to complexities of other tax laws, e.g. estate and gift, state and local, sales and foreign taxes.

Hopefully, this thesis will pose wiser questions and cite better answers In the spirit of the statement made by the late Louis Eisenstein, a tax lawyer, "Better answers require wiser questions, ...The only meaningful questions are those which focus on the precise purpose and effects of a dispensation."(1) To focus on the precise purpose and effects of the capital gains dispensation, an updated Adam Smith model of a theoretically 'good' income tax will be used in this chapter to analyze some arguments for the special treatment accorded capital gains and losses. The complexities in the tax system which are due to the capital gain and loss provisions are identified in Chapter II. Chapter III develops a complexity measurement model based on content analysis which is currently utilized in communications, psychology and education research. This model is applied to the capital gain and loss provisions in Chapter IV, and the results are utilized to develop a tax expenditure/complexity (TEC) measure in Chapter V. The implications of the study, as well as future research opportunities, are presented in the concluding chapter.

[^0]Smithian Mode1, History and Justifications of Capital Gain and Loss Treatment.
Adam Smith, in his classic economic treatise, The Wealth of Nations(2), proposed four criteria for a theoretically good income tax. Such a good tax should:

1. Result in Equality of Taxation,
2. Be Certain, Not Arbitrary,
3. Maximize the Convenience of Tax Payment, and
4. Minimize Administrative Costs.

Other economists have added two other criteria. ${ }^{8}$ It should:
5. Serve as a Fiscal Policy Tool and
6. Be Economically Neutral.

It should be noted that many of these criteria, especially Equality and Minimized Administrative Costs, Economic Neutrality and Fiscal Policy Tool, are inherently conflicting. A conscious political, social or economic weighing, including the degree of complexity involved, should be made where these criteria clash.

## I. 1 Equality of Taxation

Tax equality can be considered in terms of both horizontal and vertical equity. Horizontal equity is the "requirement of equal taxes for people of equal positions", while vertical equity is the "proper pattern of unequal taxes among people with unequal positions". 9 These concepts are easier to define than to implement as it is not clear what criterion or combination of criteria defines equality (income, consumption, wealth, utility, circumstances).

How do the capital gain and loss provisions satisfy the equality criter-

[^1]1on? Advocates of the present favored treatment (or the more extreme position that all capital gains should be exempt from tax) argue from the global horizontal equity viewpoint, exemption or special treatment is appropriate, because many foreign countries ${ }^{10}$ exempt from taxation capital gains on property held for investment purposes. (See Tables 1 and 2 for a comparison of the U.S. and nine other major industrialized foreign countries' treatment of individual and corporate capital gains.) However, few of our tax rules are consistent with other countries', so global horizontal equity does not appear to be an acceptable tax criterion. Furthermore, as Table 1 shows, treatment of business gains is more preferentially treated in the U.S. than in foreign countries, and other than stocks and securities, U.S. treatment of individuals is often less onerous than foreign treatment.

Another basic contention is that capital gains are not income, ${ }^{11}$ and therefore, logic would dictate that it should not be taxed. The fact that in

10 See A.R. Ilersic, The Taxation of Capital Gains (London: Staples Press, 1962)
for the British and United States treatment compared; Lawrence Seltzer, Nature and Tax Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1951), and Henry Simons, Personal Income Taxation (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938) for various foreign countries' tax treatment. The above cites predate the $1970^{\prime}$ s so Tables 1 and 2 were prepared from Price Waterhouse, Worldwide Sunmary of Corporate Taxation (October 1980) and various Arthur Andersen Tax and Trade Guides and Pocket Guides to European Individual and Corporate Taxes. It is interesting to note that with regard to corporate treatment of capital gains, the U.S. treatment is no more onerous than foreign treatment and in a significant number of situations, the treatment is more beneficial.

11
For purposes of this study, $I$ will sidestep the issue of the proper tax base, Income or consumption. I will take as given the U.S. Income tax system being a quasi-income based one. (The same basic assumption is made in arriving at the tax expenditure concept discussed in footnote 7.) For a good overview of the tax definitions and application of these two competing theories, see Joseph A. Pechman, Comprehensive Income Taxation (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1977) Chapter I; Pechman, Federal Tax Policy, pp. 66-68 and Chapter 6; and Pechman, What Should Be Taxed: Income or Expenditure? (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1980). For pro consumption based theory, see Thomas Hobbes, Leviathian, Chapter XXX (1651); Nicholas Kaldor, An Expenditure Tax (1955); Irving Fisher, "Income in Theory and Income Taxation in Practice", Eco-

## table 1

| FACTORS <br> COUNTRIES | Australia | Austria | Belgium | Canada | France | W. Germany | Japan | Sweden | U.K. | U.S. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Highest Individual Tax Rate - Regular | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable | less <br> favorable | more favorable | more fevorable | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | 70\% |
| Highest Individual Tax Rate - Capital Gain | more favorable | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $28 \%$ |
| Definition of Capital Asset | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | same | same | same | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | same | same | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | Section 1221 Liberal |
| Gain on Business Asset | more <br> favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | less favora- <br> ble, if held <br> less than <br> five years, more if held more than 5 | more favorable | same | ```less favorable``` | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | less favora- <br> ble (unless <br> held more <br> than four <br> years) | iess <br> favorable | Section 1231 treated as Capital Gain |
| Gain on Investment Assets - Stocks and Securities | more favorable (unless intended for resale at a profit) | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | less favorable (unless owned more than ten years) | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | Capital Gain |
| Gain on Investment <br> Assets - Non-stock | more favorable (unless intended for resale at a profic) | more favorable (except real estate) | less favorable if held less than five years, more if held more than 5 | more favorable | less favorable (unless owned more than ten years) | more favorable | less favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | Capital Gain |
| Short-term/Longterm Dividing Line | same | $\begin{aligned} & \text { same-stocks } \\ & \text { less-R.E. } \end{aligned}$ | less favorable (five years) | more favorable | $1 e s s$ <br> favorable | more favorable (six months) | less favor <br> able (five years) | less favorable (two years) | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | One Year |

[^2]SOURCES: Arthur Andersen \& Co. - Tax and Trade Guide
TABLE 2
corporate capital gain treatment ay 10 industrialized nations using the u.s. as a benchmark

| COUATRIES | Australia | Austria | Belgium | Canada | France | W. Germany | Japan | Sweden | U.K. | U.S. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Highest Corporate Tax Rate - Regular | same | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | same | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable | less favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | 46\% |
| Highest Corporate <br> Tax Rate - Capital <br> Cain | more favorable | less favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable (50\% of gain is excluded) | more favorable | less <br> favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | Less favorable | less favorable | 28\% |
| Definition of Capital Asset | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | less favorable | less favorable (must hold five years) | same | same | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{array}$ | same | same | Section 1221 Liberal - Includes Stocks, R.E., Business Assets, Speculating, Investments, etc. |
| Gain on Business Assets | more favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favor- <br> able (if <br> held five <br> years) | more favorable | more favorable if not distributed to shareholders | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | same | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Section } 1231 \\ & \text { Treated as } \\ & \text { Capital Gain } \end{aligned}$ |
| Gain on Investment Assets | less favorable (if intended for sale) | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable (if held five years) | $\begin{gathered} \text { more } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | more favorable if not distributed to shareholders | less <br> favorable | $\begin{gathered} \text { less } \\ \text { favorable } \end{gathered}$ | stocks more favorable <br> R.E. - less favorable | same | Section 1221 Treated as Capital Gain |
| Depreciation Recapture Concept | same | same | more favorable (if held five years or more) | same | same | same | same | same | same | Sections 1245 and 1250: Depreciation Recapture Convert ing Capital Gain back to Ord. Inc |
| Short-terw/Longterm Dividing Line | same | Less favorable | ```less favor- able (five years)``` | more favorable | less favorable (two years) | less favorable | less favorable | less favorable (two to five years) | more favorable | One Year |

SOURCE: Price Waterhouse \& Co. - Corporate Taxes: A Worldwide Sumary (October 1980)
the U.K. capital gains are defined as accretions to capital and are tax exempt, ${ }^{12}$ and that under U.S. trust and property rules capital gains may be designated as corpus, is cited as support for this contention. The fruit and the tree analogy is also frequently cited in support of this view. The fruit represents annual income, but the tree (capital and its appreciation) is not income and should go untaxed or else the annual yield will diminish. This argument violates the horizontal equity criterion. If one investor owns a growth stock and another investor owns an income stock which will yield the same (in present value terms) over time, why should the first investor's tax be less than the second's? The growth increment (if recognized at all) will be taxed as capital gain ( $40 \%$ of appreciation) while the income increases will be treated as ordinary income (taxable at $100 \%$ ).

A view more commonly held in the U.S. is that capital gains are income and that both horizontal and vertical equity considerations are satisfied if the proper measure of taxable income is 'economic power' (defined as the ability to consume rather than actual consumption). This is the heart of the Haig-Simons-Schanz income definition "consumption plus change in net worth". Under this income concept, not only should capital appreciation be taxed, but
nometrica 5 (1937), p. 1, and his Constructive Income Taxation: A Proposal for Reform; William D. Andrew,"A Consumption Type or Cash Flow Personal Income Tax", Harvard Law Review 87 (1974): 1113; and Blueprints for Basic Tax Reform. For pro income based theory, see Robert Murray Haig, The Concept of Income-Economic and Legal Aspects in the Federal Income Tax, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1921), p. 7; Henry C. Simons, Personal Income Taxation, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938); George Schanz, Der Einkommensbegriff Und Die Einkommensteurgesettize, (Finanz-Archiv, 1896) Volume 13, pp. 1-8; Richard Goode, The Superiority of the Income Tax Over the Expenditure Tax, Brookings Institution Conference 10/19-20/78; Henry Aaron, "What is a Comprehensive Tax Base Anyway?", National Taxation Journal 22 (1969) 543.

It should be noted that the U.K. definition of capital assets is more ifmited than the U.S. version. Sce Halg's series of Wall Street Journal articles (3/23, $3 / 25,3 / 29,4 / 2,4 / 8,4 / 13,1937$ ) and Tables 1 and 2. Also, since the mid-70's, capital gains are generally taxable in England.
its timing should be on a realization basis, ${ }^{13}$ rather than a sale or exchange basis.

Another argument often asserted against taxing capital appreciation is that it is due to a change in interest rates, and if the assets sold were reinvested in similar assets, the investor would receive the same return, only in the absence of a tax. With a tax on the sale or exchange, the yield would be diminished. This is just a sub-argument of the general rule that taxes are a disincentive. Why distinguish bonds from any other income, earned or unearned? The inverse of this return argument is that the interest and capital gains are two parts of the same return, so under the horizontal equity criterion why should they be taxed differently? Further, vis a vis a fixed income account (savings account or Series $E$ bond) you are better off. Granting favorable tax treatment for a better off position is reverse vertical equity and plainly inconsistent with the equality criterion.

Under the equality criterion it is asserted that an asset's value is derived from its expected income and this income will be subject to tax when received; so taxing the income and the market value change is double taxation. 14

Haig-Simons-Schanz's model of income requires a valuation of assets on an annual basis so as to determine consumption plus change in net worth. Thus, realization on capital gains (losses) would be the positive (negative) difference between FMV at year-end and FMV at the beginning of the year. In this study, we will not examine the pros and cons of the realization basis. It should be noted that it is not part of our current tax system primarily due to the compliance cost of valuation (criterion \#4) and the inconvenience of paying tax with no cash generated (criterion \#3). It should be noted that for accounting purposes the concept of realization is used in a very different context than as defined above. In fact, accountants view realization on a sale or exchange basis.

The double taxation concept is basically that if $\$ 1$ is earned and invested, it is taxed when earned and the yield from the $\$ 1$ is again taxed. If it were earned and spent (consumed), it would be taxed only once. Thus, it is argued that our income based system is biased against savings. Note that capital gain treatment only affects one segment of savings at the expense of other savings forms.

This argument is part of the broader nonconsumption income versus consumption income tax system controversy (see footnote 11). Since our tax system is primarily income based and all nonconsumption income is double-taxed, why distinguish capital gains from other nonconsumption income? Such a distinction is a clear violation of horizontal equity.

Another reason of ten cited for special treatment of capital gains is that the gain, though realized over several years, is taxed all in one year. 15 Given our progressive marginal tax rates, this might result in a higher tax than if a realization basis was in effect. Several observations should be made on this issue. The decision of when and how much to sell is made at the discretion of the seller, and market conditions. It should be noted that, in effect, the taxpayer who controls the timing has an interest-free loan from the government on the tax that would be due on a realization basis. Further, If the property is held until death or gifted, the gain may be indefinitely or permanently postponed. A planned sale when the taxpayer is in a lower marginal tax bracket is another factor often ignored. In effect, the taxpayer has the option of selling on a realization or recognition basis. Income averaging under its current provisions (Sec. 1301) or in some modified form could be used to alleviate the horizontal equity problem associated with 'bunching', without Introducing the complexity that capital gain and loss special provisions have generated. Interestingly, corporations are taxed on an essentially proportion-

This is not necessarily true since installment sales and deferred sales treatment is available for many transactions, depending on the method of payment. When capital gains and installment sales treatment applies to the same transaction, you have the bunching criteria being doubly applied. Furthermore, a one-year holding period (previously it was nine or six months) wouldn't reflect significant accumulation over time. The proposed 1981 tax law change might reduce the holding period length back to six months.
al basis ${ }^{16}$ so no extra tax is incurred because of a realization or recognition basis. Yet the capital gains special provisions also apply at the corporate level.

The application of the equality criterion to the capital loss provision has been given much less emphasis in the tax literature. Theoretical considerations have received less emphasis because of the potential revenue drain of an unlimited loss deduction coupled with the investor's discretion as to timing of losses (sooner) and recognition of gains (later).

This potential loss of revenue problem deserves more analysis. Little empirical evidence of the affect of unlimited loss provisions is available. It would be interesting to compare periods of no limitation with periods of limited loss. Unfortunately, the only suitable periods were between 1917 and 1933, and market conditions today may be significantly different. The data is nevertheless interesting. During 1917-1921, capital losses could be fully deducted against ordinary income while in 1922-1933 only limited deductions could be taken. The annual average total capital loss varied moderately with the change In the law. (3) The average annual loss between 1917 and 1921 was $\$ 661$ million and $\$ 837$ miliion between 1921 and 1933. The recognized loss between uniform loss treatment periods varied to a greater extent than the recognized loss in different treatment periods. The range of losses was $\$ 70$ million to $\$ 1,102$ million in 1917-1921; $\$ 213$ million to $\$ 1,815$ million in 1922-1933. This would seem to indicate that forces other than capital loss treatment were operating. The equity criterion calls for similar treatment between capital gains and capital losses. In Figure 1 a comparison of the capital gain and loss results are presented under an economic realization and recognition basis. We

The corporate tax rate on all taxable income above $\$ 100,000$ is $46 \%$. The alternative tax on capital gains is 28\%.


#### Abstract

assume a progressive marginal tax rate and consistently high regular (non-capital gain) income over time.


FIGURE 1
REALIZATION VS. RECOGNITION

Capital Gains

Basis
lower tax cost
higher tax cost

## Capital Losses

higher tax benefit (skims the highest rates each year)
lower tax benefit
(it would absorb lower tax rates in year recognized)

Under our current recognition system, the higher tax due to bunching is used as the justification for the special gain provisions. In effect, it puts the taxpayer on a quasi-realization basis. But the higher tax benefits available to a taxpayer from a loss when he sells at his discretion (on a quasirealization basis) is considered a bad and, therefore, limitations are imposed. Somehow this treatment seems incongruent and inequitable.

From the viewpoint of equality, it would appear that capital losses should be treated the same as ordinary losses, capital gains should be treated the same as ordinary gains and capital gains and losses should be treated the same. Therefore, it is clear that the special treatment of capital assets is not supported or justified by the equality of taxation criterion.

## I. 2 Taxes Should Be Certain, Not Arbitrary

Smith was willing to give up a considerable amount of equality for certainty and nonarbitrariness. Certain and not arbitrary means that the tax consequences are fully known and knowable because the law is clear and the dividing lines are not arbitrary. This criterion is seriously violated. The
complexity, arbitrariness and uncertainty of capital gains provisions is illustrated by the fact that it is crucial to distinguish between an investor and a dealer; a Northern Pine tree and a Southern Pine tree; a copyright and a patent; a sale and a distribution; a business and non-business bad debt. All of these distinctions are necessarily uncertain, arbitrary and subjective.

The history of capital gains and losses reflects constantly changing treatment. Permanence is another measure of certainty. A rule should be fairly constant so that a taxpayer might be confident that treatment will be similar over time. Unfortunately, this has not been true in the capital gains area.

Throughout the modern income tax period in the U.S. (1913-1980), the treatment of capital gains and losses has been highly variable ${ }^{17}$ (see Tables 3 - 6). Basically, a long-term capital gain has been taxed in three different ways: 1. It has been taxed as ordinary income at ordinary rates; 2 . As ordinary income at special rates; 3. As a percentage of the income at ordinary rates. Presently, $40 \%$ of the gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held by an individual over twelve months is subject to the regular income tax rates (treatment under alternative 3 above). For corporations, the full qualified gain is taxed at a maximum special rate of $28 \%$ (treatment under alternative 2 above).

The treatment of capital losses has also varied. Basically, a longterm capital loss: 1 . has not been deductible at all (against ordinary income and/or capital gains); 2. has been fully deductible against ordinary income or capital gains; 3. has been partially deductible against ordinary income. Cur-

[^3]| HISTORICAL TREATMENT OF LONG-TERM CAPITAL GAINS - INDIVIDUALS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1913-1921 | 1922-1933 | 1934-1937 | 1938-1941 | 1942-1968 | 1969-1977 | 1978- |
| 1 - Amount of Gain Included in Income | 100\% | 100\% | $\begin{aligned} & 30-100 \% \\ & \text { depending } \\ & \text { on holding } \\ & \text { period } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30-100 \% \\ & \text { depending } \\ & \text { on holding } \\ & \text { period } \end{aligned}$ | 50\% | 50\% | 40\% |
| 2 - Tax Rate on Includible Amount | 1-77\% | $\begin{gathered} 12 \frac{1}{2} \% \text { maxi- } \\ \text { mum } \end{gathered}$ | 4-79\% | $\begin{aligned} & 15+20 \% \\ & \text { ceiling, } \\ & 30 \% \text { alt. } \\ & \text { tax rate } \end{aligned}$ | 50\% alternative tax rate | ```50-70% alt. tax rate``` | $\begin{aligned} & 14-70 \% \\ & \text { alt. tax } \\ & \text { rate re- } \\ & \text { pealed } \end{aligned}$ |
| ```3-Tax Rate' Range on Ordi- nary Income``` | 1-77\% | 1-63\% | 4-79\% | $4-81 \%$ | 14-94\% | 14-77\% | 14-70\% |
| 4 - Income Averaging Available | - | - | - | Yes ${ }^{2}$ | Yes ${ }^{2}$ | Yes | Yes |
| 5 - Holding Period | - | 2 years | 1-10 yrs. | 18 mos.- $10 \mathrm{grs}$. | 6 months | 6, 9 mos., 1 yr. | 1 year |
| 6-Special <br> Provisions | - | - | - | - | Iniroduction of Depreciation Recapture Rules | ```Minimum Tax on Capital Gain (10-15%)``` | Eliminated Minimum Tax on C/G and Instituted Alt. Min. Tax |

TABLE 5

| HISTORICAL TREATMENT OF LONG-TERM CAPITAL LOSSES - INDIVIDUALS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1913-1921 | 1922-1933 | 1934-1937 | 1938-1941 | 1942-1968 | 1969-1977 | 1978 - |
| 1 - Amount of Loss Deductible | None, then against C/G, 100\% against ord. income | Fully, then 12 $\frac{1}{2} \%$ rate | Net Capital Loss against \$2,000 ordinary income | Only against C/G | Net Capital Loss against $\$ 1,000$ ord. income | $50 \%$ of Net Capital Loss against $\$ 1,000$ ord. income | $50 \%$ of Net Capital Loss against \$3,000 ord. income |
| 2 - Tax Rate Range on Capital Gains | 1-77\% | 1212\% max. | 4-79\% | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \& 20 \% \\ & \text { ceiling, } 30 \% \\ & \text { alt. tax rate } \end{aligned}$ | 50\% alternative tax rate | 50-73\% alternative tax rate | 14-70\% |
| 3 - Tax Rate Range on Ordinary Income | 1-77\% | 1-63\% | 4-79\% | $4-81 \%$ | 14-94\% | 14-77\% | 14-70\% |
| $\begin{aligned} 4 & \text { - Holding } \\ & \text { Period } \end{aligned}$ | - | 2 years | 1-10 yrs. | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \text { mos. - } \\ & 10 \text { years } \end{aligned}$ | 6 months | 6, 9, $12 \mathrm{mos}$. | 12 months |
| $\begin{gathered} 5 \text { - Carryover } \\ \text { Rules } \end{gathered}$ | - | - | - |  | 5 yr. carryforward, unlimited (until deatin) carryforward | unlimited carryforward | unlimited carryforward |


rently, individuals may reduce ordinary income by a net capital loss to the extent of $\$ 3,000$ per year. A carryforward is avallable for an extended period of time (treatment under alternative 3). For corporations, no offset against ordinary income is available (current, past or future) and a three-year carryback and a five-year carryforward is allowable against capital gains (a modified alternative 2 treatment).

Since capital gains and losses are treated different than ordinary income and losses (as well as different than each other), a prudent man would try to structure a given transaction so as to produce long-term capital gains rather than short-term capital gains or ordinary income; and ordinary loss rather than long-term or short-term capital loss. This has led to a great deal of complexity in our tax law, adding to the uncertainty and thus, violating Smith's criterion of certainty and not arbitrary.

## 1. 3 Tax Payments Should Be Convenient

Adam Smith, as well as present day politicians and economists, felt that it was important that tax payments should be convenient, i.e. taxpayers should have the wherewithal to pay the tax. This is part of the rationale for our pay-as-you-go withholding and estimated tax rules. The like kind exchange (I.R.C. Section 1301), involuntary conversions (Section 1033), sale of residence (Section 1034), and reorganizations (Sections 351 and 368) rules have all been justified on this basis. Even though there is an economically realized gain, there is no cash to pay for the tax on the realized gain. The tax is postponed until there is a sale, exchange or disposition that will provide funds to pay the tax due.

The same convenience of payment rationale has been applied to the capital asset tax treatment. If we taxed capital gains on a realization basis (see
footnote 13), as Henry Simons often advocated, we would be violating this criterion. A taxpayer would pay on a paper gain but would not have any negotiable paper generated to pay for it. This reasoning, plus the discussion of subchapter $I .4$ below, justifies maintaining the recognition basis. However, it in no way justifies the special capital asset treatment that has existed since 1921. When a gain is postponed under the recognition rules, the taxpayer has the benefit of an interest-free loan from the government and the rationale of an additional tax benefit on the sale or exchange of a capital asset is hard to justify under the convenience criterion.

The convenience argument does not seem relevant to capital losses. The convenience of payment argument justifies the recognition basis for gains and losses, but it does not justify the special favorable treatment of capital gains, nor the negative preferential treatment accorded capital losses.

## I. 4 Tax Law Should Minimize Administrative Costs

Adam Smith argued that a good income tax system requires minimum cost of collection and any collection cost certainly must include costs of compliance. The capital gain and loss provisions have added tremendous administrative, judicial and compliance costs as described in Chapters II, III and IV. This cost is primarily attributable to the complexity that the capital asset provisions introduce in the tax law. Complexity leads to a lack of comprehensibility by the taxpayer and the government, and involves a tremendous expenditure of energy in a non-productive direction.

The recognition basis of taxing capital transactions is properly justifiable under the compliance cost argument. Valuation of the taxpayer's assets every year and the cost of governmental verification would impose a tremendous administrative burden on both the taxpayer and the government. As previously
discussed, justifying the recognition basis in no way justifies the preference for capital transactions, especially when the preference adds so greatly to the administrative costs. As Chapters II, III and IV demonstrate, the existing preference is not only unjustified, but it seriously violates the minimum administrative cost criterion.

None of the four criteria originally presented by Adam Smith, justify preferential capital gain and loss treatment. Indeed, all to a greater or lesser degree can be used to argue against the capital asset preference. In addition to the Adam Smith criteria, it has been urged that a good income tax should reflect a fiscal policy tool and economic neutrality criteria.

## I. 5 Fiscal Policy Tool

The government often uses taxes as a fiscal policy tool to encourage or discourage economic activity. Because it was thought socially desirable to increase oil and gas exploration, percentage depletion rules were adopted; to encourage investment in certain equipment, the government enacted investment tax credit rules; to encourage domestic corporations' selling overseas, it instituted domestic intemational sales corporation (DISC) rules; to discourage certain boycott-type behavior by domestic corporations, the government enacted Code Section 999; to discourage the razing of historical structures, Congress enacted legislation penalizing the demolition of historic sites (Section 280B). Taxes are often discussed in the economics literature as an important and vital stabilizing influence on the economy. Basically, when the economy is in a period of prosperity, the income taxes will take some of the steam out of the system (economic drag). Conversely, when the economy is in a recession, transfer payments and the tax system (allowance of losses, net operating loss, carrybacks, etc.) allow for a speedier recovery.

The potentially most compelling justification for the capital gain and loss special treatment is that it encourages capital formation and investment. There might be a need for incentives to encourage risky ventures, innovation and new investments in order to maintain or improve the standard of living for future generations, to compete in world markets and to increase productivity. It is argued that our income-based tax system discourages savings by double taxing it (see footnote 14) and that capital gain treatment is needed to offset this bias against nonconsumption income. The question naturally arises, why a preference should be given to capital gains and not to other nonconsumption income, such as rents, royalties, interest, dividends, and others? $A$ further question is, how do you distinguish investment from speculation? The holding period concept (currently one year) is an ineffective method of distinguishing between the two. Capital gain and loss provisions may also result In portfolio changes rather than encourage new investment. Many of the capital transactions that occur are merely a change in investment mix. In the 1970's, an average of $1 \%$ of Gross National Product was raised for new shares In the equity market.(4) Is this sufficient justification to complicate the tax system by $15 \%$ ?(5) One might argue that the special provisions are essential to maintain liquidity and encourage the market for investments, but what are the costs in terms of complexity and are there more efficient measures available? A general tax reduction, made possible by the elimination of the capital gain preference, ${ }^{18}$ might induce the desired behavior without so much complexity. This possibility will briefly be presented in Chapter VI.

Much of the investment in the U.S. is undertaken by tax exempt organi-

18 In 1977, the capital gain tax preference was $\$ 8.12$ billion. (See Joseph Pechman, Federal Tax Policy, 3rd ed., p. 354.) In fiscal 1980, the preference was $\$ 11.73$ billion (see Figure 3, p. 76).
zations (pension plans, charitable organizations, foundations, and government funds) with 1979 assets in excess of $\$ 600$ billion, which are unaffected by the capital asset's special provisions. Additionally, much investment is generated by banks, insurance companies and other financial intermediaries which are taxed at a relatively low effective tax rate and thus, unaffected by the preference. To the extent that these organizations are involved in the capital formation and investment process, the justification for the capital gain and loss preference as a fiscal policy tool is significantly diluted. In 1980, the value of American corporations' publicly traded stock was $\$ 1.1$ trillion while public and private pension plans (without taking into account charitable organizations, foundations, government funds, bank ; insurance companies, etc.) had $\$ 609$ billion to invest of which $\$ 372$ billiol ere invested in stocks and bonds.(6) By comparison, in 1979 eighty-one companies sold stock for the first time raising $\$ 506$ million. (7) By adopting specific measures such as the Paris Bourse experiment, ${ }^{19}$ the government might encourage new investments from a larger segment of the population without the attendant complexity of the current capital gain and loss provisions.

The encouragement of risk-taking is not facilitated by our current tax system wherc capital losses are severely limited.

The capital gains provisions only affect a relatively small percentage of the taxpayers in any given year.(8) In $1970,93 \%$ of all individual returns reported no net gain from the sale of capital assets. Of the remaining $7 \%$, a majority were on returns with adjusted gross income above $\mathbf{\$ 3 0 , 0 0 0 . ~ I n ~ 1 9 7 3 , ~}$

Tax deductions or credits were used to encourage specific new investments. See Wall Street Journal, May 5 and June 4, 1980, and Business Week, September 1. 1980, p. 67 for a discussion of other countries' methods of encouraging savings and investment.
7.4 million out of 81 million individual returns filed (9\%) reported some capital gain or loss from the sale of a capital asset. ${ }^{20}$ Yet $65 \%$ of all code sections are impacted in some way by the capital gain and loss special provisions. (9) In both absolute and relative terms, the higher the income, the more benefits from the special preference. ${ }^{21}$ As a matter of fact, one analysis showed that the preference made the tax system regressive between the $\$ 500,000-\$ 1,000,000(36 \%$ effective tax rate) and over $\$ 1,000,000$ adjusted gross income (34\% effective tax rate). (10) This type of analysis led to an assertion by Stanley Surrey, "Not taxing capital gains as income under an income tax is very much like not taxing expenditures on luxury goods under a consumption tax."(11) Admittedly, the $7 \%$ or $9 \%$ of individual taxpayers may be different individuals in different years. Given that in 1970 only one out of a hundred individual returns filed showed a capital gain exceeding $\$ 1,500$, it Is incredible to introduce the amount of complexity that this special provision does for so small a segment of the population.(12)

The empirical impact of the preference on an investor's decisions has never been fully tested, especially when coupled with lower overall tax rates. Two studies tried to gauge its effect.(13) Both studies concluded that taxes have an effect on investment decisions, but that other factors are more import-

20
See U.S. Department of the Treasury Publications 458 (November 1980), Sales of Capital Assets Reported on Individual Income Tax Returns - 1973. The total gross capital gains for 1973 were $\$ 50.5$ billion and gross losses were $\$ 15.4$ billion. Corporate stock sales were reported on 2.5 million returns (out of 7.4) and showed $\$ 13.1$ billion gains and $\$ 8.0$ billion in losses.

21
For 1972, for AGI under $\$ 50,000$ less than $8 \%$ of income was fron. C/G. " $100,000-500,000$ less than $19.4 \%$ of income was from C/G. " $500,000-1,000,000$ less than $43.7 \%$ of income was from C/G. " over $1,000,000$ less than $58.1 \%$ of income was from C/G.
Sources: Musgrave, Public Finance, pp. 241-248 Jerome Hellerstein, Taxes, Loopholes and Morality, (New York: McGraw Hill, 1963) p. 43, shows that in 1959, taxpayers with AGI of 50,000 or greater ( $3 \%$ of taxpayers) received $36 \%$ of net LTCG income.
ant. They conclude that capital gain treatment has an impact on the mix of investment, but neither study shows that the magnitude of investment is affected. In other words, capital gain provisions do influence the choice among investment alternatives, but they may not affect the total pool of savings. If the special provisions only affect the mix of investments and not the magnitude, then its justification as a fiscal policy tool is considerably reduced. Under the guise of a fiscal policy tool, present capital gain and loss treatment has been justified to unlock the 'lock-in' effect. There are several aspects of the lock-in effect that should be discussed. It is asserted that taxpayers who have an economic gain have an incentive not to sell because of the tax consequences, even if better alternative investments may be available. This leads to a less than optimal portfolio, an impaired mobility of capital and may prevent some worthwhile ventures from being invested in. The irony of this argument is that much of the lock-in problem would be eliminated if the realization basis was utilized, since gain or loss would be taxed over the holding period and no disincentive would be involved on the sale of the asset. Thus, a preference granted to the capital asset area (recognition basis, with its attendant tax benefits, i.e. Interest-free loan and timing discretion) has given rise to the lock-in problem. Solving this new problem (lock-in) by expanding the original preference (recognition basis with reduced taxation on the recognition) seems a bit absurd. Similarly, others argue that it is the present tax climate (high tax rate on dividends, interest, savings, etc.) that causes the lock-in effect. As will be discussed in Chapter VI, the general tax rates could be substantially reduced by eliminating the capital gain and loss preference, and thus, reduce the lock-in effect.

It has been argued that in a rising stock market, the market fluctuation will be exaggerated by a reduction in the supply of stocks due to the lock-in
effect, and in a down stock market, an increase in the supply of stock (immediate recognition of loss) will also accentuate the fluctuations. Several studies have shown that this analysis is faulty because most buyers are also sellers of securities, and thus, the gap between supply and demand is reduced. Another weakness of the lock-in argument is that its impact is partially attributable to the distinguishing of long-term from short-term status ${ }^{22}$ and, therefore, provides incentives to hold until long-term status is achieved. To this extent, the lock-in problem is caused by the capital gain provisions, rather than a justification for it.

Another argument often raised in fustifying, in fiscal policy terms, the capital asset preference is that capital gains represent nominal, rather than real, income since inflation adjustments would produce a smaller gain or a loss. This is an argument that nominal income is not real income, which is particularly compelling for a society that has experienced double-digit inflation throughout the preceding decade. A study by Martin Feldstein ${ }^{23}$ concluded

22
The lock-in caused by the long-term/short-term dichotomy can be illustrated by the following factor formula:
$1-\frac{1-\text { Marginal Tax Rate }}{1-\text { (Marginal Tax Rate } x .40)}=$ Factor that appreciation could be reEXAMPLE
Individual owns stock bought seven months ago for $\$ 10,000$, now worth $\$ 20,000$ and taxpayer is in $70 \%$ bracket. If he sells now, his after-tax profit is 3,000 ( $10,000 \mathrm{x} .30$ ). If he waits more than five months, he could have his profit decline by . 58 and still have 3,000 after-tax profit. If the stock stays the same or goes up, he will be better off.
PROOF:
$1-\frac{1-.70}{1-(.7 \times .4)}=1-\frac{.3}{.72}=.58$, so if profit declined by 5,800,
still as well off.
4200 profit
1176 tax (28\%)
3024
23
Martin Feldstein and Joel Slemrod, "Inflation and the Excess Taxation of Capital Gain on Corporate Stock", National Tax Journal 31 (1978): 107. Note that the real loss affected taxpayers with AGI below $\$ 100,000$, while for AGI above
that for 1973 , a $\$ 4.5$ billion nominal gain on corporate stocks represents a \$1 billion real capital loss. However, this inflation effect is not unique to capital gains; it is even more applicable to interest, dividends, pension receipts, salaries. For example, if a savings account earns $6 \%$ on $\$ 10,000$ and the inflation rate is $10 \%$, the taxpayer's nominal income of $\$ 600$ is subject to tax as ordinary income, but a real loss has been incurred on the principal, as well as the interest. With taxation being based on nominal amounts, the whole tax system is unfair, but the burden of inequity is not on capital transactions, where some appreciation is available, and where the timing is discretionary but on fixed income items like interest. Brinner's study (14) on the taxation of capital gains and inflation showed that the proportion of infla-tion-induced gain decreased, as holding period increased. Thus, capital gains may be the least justifiable area for special treatment under the fiscal policy criteria.

If the savings rate is considered too low, specific tax policies could be implemented without the complexities and inequities that capital asset treatment causes. The capital gain and loss preference affects the tax base to such a large degree that it reduces the amount of tax flexibility available to the government for other fiscal policy tools. 24 The heart of the question is why similar nonconsumption incomes should be treated differently; and why apply one rough inflation adjustment to a small part of the system and not the
$\$ 500,000$ real income was $80 \%$ of nominal gains. Thus, it was the middle and lower income classes that suffered from the inflation effect. See also Michael Boskin, Federal Tax Reform: Myths and Realities (San Francisco: Institute for Contemporary Studies, 1978) p. 88.

For 1978 , the individual tax base was $\$ 189$ billion, while the capital gain preference was $\$ 8$ billion. Several studics have shown that the highest marginal tax rate could be in the $30+\%$ range if capital asset preference and some other minor changes are made.
whole system? The capital gain and loss preference seems to be unjustified or, at best, weakly justified under the fiscal policy tool criterion.

## I. 6 Economic Neutrality

Economic neutrality was not explicitly discussed by Adam Smith but has been developed as a criterion over the last 200 years. Economic neutrality states that a tax system should affect the taxpayer's behavior as little as possible and should be primarily concerned with raising revenue. It is believed that, by keeping taxes low and neutral, individuals will be motivated by non-tax economic considerations. This concept is obviously diametrically opposed to the fiscal policy criterion.

Given our government structure, and assuming no reduction in government expenditures, a given amount of revenue is required. If you reduce the tax on certain transactions, it increases the effective tax rate on all others. 25 There is no doubt that capital gain treatment, which encourages investment in certain assets rather than others, is non-neutral. By decreasing the effective tax rate on certain transactions labeled capital gains, you are raising the effective tax rate on interest, dividends, rents, royalties, pensions, and earned income. This will affect taxpayers' behaviors (as well as the complexity of the tax law). Economic neutrality, as a theoretically good income tax criterion, is seriously violated.

## Conclusion

The Adam Smith model of a theoretically good income tax has been presome taxes will have a multiplier effect that will not require increase in tax rates on other incomes.
sented as a frame of reference to see whether the special provisions under discussion, capital gains and losses, can be justified. This chapter has shown that the special preference may be weakly justified, if at all, by the fiscal policy tool criterion but violates all the other criteria. The convenience of tax payment criterion supports the recognition doctrine but not the current capital gain and loss treatment. From this analysis, it can be seen that the special preference, at least in terms of the criteria advanced, does not represent a benefit. The following chapters will describe, analyze and measure the complexity that the capital gain and loss provisions introduce to the tax law and thus, costs attributable to the provision.
(1) Louis Eisenstein, The Ideologies of Taxation (New York: Ronald Press, 1961) p. 197.
(2) Adam Smith, The Wealth of Nations (New York: Modern Library, 1937) p. 777.
(3) Lawrence H. Seltzer, Nature and Tax Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1951) p. 189.
(4) Wall Street Journal, May 13, 1981, p. 56.
(5) P. 67 below, Table 7.
(6) Deloitte, Haskins \& Sells' Week in Review 80-33, August 15, 1980, p. 3.
(7) Wall Street Journal, January 22, 1980.
(8) Roger A. Freeman, Tax Loopholes: the Legend and the Reality (Washington, D.C.: AEI-Hoover Policy Studies, 1973) p. 42.
(9) p. 68 below, Table 8.
(10) Benjamin A. Okner, "Effective Individual Income Tax Rates", National Tax Journal 32 (1979): 368.
(11) Stanley S. Surrey, Pathways to Tax Reform: The Concept of Tax Expenditure, p. 196.
(12) Philip M. Stern, The Rape of the Taxpayer (New York: Random House, 1973) p. 381.
(13) Robin Barlow, Harvey Brazer and James Morgan; Economic Behavior of the Affluent (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1966); and Keith Butters, Lawrence Thompson and Lynr. Bollinger, Effects of Taxation - Investments by Individuals (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1953).
(14) Roger Brinner, "Inflation and the Definition of Taxable Personal Income", In Inflation and the Income Tax, ed. Henry J. Aaron (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1976) p. 121.

Introduction
There is no doubt that our tax system is complex. ${ }^{26}$ Judge Learned Hand ${ }^{27}$ In his usual mellifluous manner has captured the feeling of this complexity:

In my own case, the words of such an act as the Income Tax, for example, merely dance before my eyes in a meaningless procession: cross-reference to cross-reference, exception upon exception -- couched in abstract terms that offer no handle to seize hold of -- leave in my mind only a confused sense of some vitally important, but successfully concealed purport, which it is my duty to extract, but which is within my power, if at all, only after the most inordinate expenditure of time. I know that these monsters are the result of fabulous industry and ingenuity, plugging up this hole and casting out that net, against all possible evasion; yet at times $I$ cannot help recalling a saying of William James about certain passages of Hegel: that they were no doubt written with a passion of rationality; but that one cannot help wondering whether to the reader they have any significance save that the words are strung together with syntactical correctness.

To the extent that this complexity is due to the handing of sophisticated business situations, a diversity of life-styles, and government's perceived social, political and economic goals, it is perhaps unavoidable. However, this study deals with complexity that is avoidable. Avoidable or unjustifiable complexity is inefficient and socially undesirable. The progressive tax rate system, the accounting period of a year, the individual as a unit, the lack of integration between corporations and shareholders, and the allowance of itemized deductions and special credits have all added substantial complexity to our tax system. The present study does not deal with these

In 1913, the code was 18 pages long. Today, it encompasses over 1000 pages and this doesn't include the volumes of material covering the regulations, public and private rulings, court cases and commentary.
27 Thomas Walter Swan, 57 Yale Law Journal 167, 169 (1947) cited in Charles J. Gaa, Contemporary Thoughts on Federal Income Taxation, (Belmont, California: Dickenson Publishing Co., 1969) pp. 3 and 4.
essentially unavoidable items, but only in measuring the avoidable complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preference. Hopefully, this study will stimulate future research into other preference/complexity areas.

This chapter describes the complexities introduced into the U.S. income tax law by the capital gain and loss preference. Neither the tax expenditure dollars involved ( $\$ 11.73 B$ for 1980 ) nor the complexities ( $15 \%$ of the tax law) are trivial. Some coments made about this preference from widely diverse viewpoints are noteworthy:
"The bargain basement of the income tax", Jerome Hellerstein, (15) a practicing lawyer and law professor emeritus at N.Y.U.
"A dollar is a dollar" of income(16) Walter Blum, professor of law, University of Chicago.
"It is pretty hard to justify treating a capital gain differently from ordinary income. I've never felt that there is anything more sacrosanct about the profit from the sale of an asset than from the sweat of your brow. "(17) Wilbur Mills, former chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee. "Money made by money should be taxed at the same rate as money made by man."(18) Senator George McGovern, former Presidential candidate.
"The most serious structural faults of our federal income tax have to do with capital gains and losses."(19) The late Henry Simons, professor of Economics, University of Chicago.

The concept of complexity has been divided into two categories in the education and psychology literature, structural and content. Content complexity is described in qualitative terms in this chapter and measured in quantitative terms in Chapter IV. Chapter VI will discuss some future research possibilities in the structural complexity area.

The content complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss prefer-
ence can be divided into five more or less distinct areas: holding period, defining a capital asset, sale or exchange, conversion of ordinary income into capital gain, and conversion of capital loss into ordinary loss.

## II. 1 Holding Period

Throughout the capital gain and loss history, a distinction has been made between speculation (not to be encouraged) and investment (to be encouraged). Since the distinction is based on intent, which is hard to ascertain, an arbitrarily defined length of holding period was used to differentiate between them. Length of holding period was also used under prior acts to distinguish the degree of favorable treatment bestowed on a given transaction. (20)

If all sales, exchanges, dispositions, and distributions were taxed uniformly, the need for complex holding period rules would virtually be eliminated. The distinction between long-term and short-term status necessitates a holding period concept. In general, Sections 1231 and 1221 define this necessary holding period as more than a year. However, there are exceptions to this seemingly simple rule. For cattle and horses, the holding period must be more than 24 months (1231(b) (3)), while for commodity futures, only six months is required (1222 (11)).

A non-business bad debt, even if outstanding for more than one year, will be considered a short-term capital loss (166(d)). However, a security (capital asset) which becomes worthless after only one month (purchased in December, became worthless in January) is considered a long-term capital loss (165(g) (1)).

The holding period rules reach a zenith of complexity (and a nadir in comprehensibility) for short sales (Section 1233). In a short sale, property you may or may not own is sold for delivery at some future date. When you
close the transaction (deliver the property), the gain or loss is recognized. Since you may have previously owned property equivalent to the one sold, complex rules dealing with a hypothetical holding period were adopted. Based on this deemed holding period, what would otherwise be a long-term gain might be classified as a short-term gain, and short-term losses considered long-term losses.

How is a holding period measured for securities? Basically from trade date to trade date. However, the year in which the gain or loss is considered to occur, is based on the trade date for losses and the settlement date for gains.

In prior years, the length of the holding period was extremely important for the real property depreciation recapture rules (Section 1250). There were complex phase-out rules which, since 1976, have been almost eliminated (they still apply to certain low-income housing property - Section 1250(d) (8)). The length of the holding period is still important in determining the gain from disposition of farm land (Section 1252) where a reduction in the amount of recapture is based on the length of the holding period in excess of five years.

The holding period rules create some interesting anomalies in the receipt of property as a gift or from an estate. If your parents bought a stock for $\$ 10$ in January 1981, died in March 1981 when the stock's value was $\$ 15$, and you sold the inherited stock for $\$ 30$ in Nay 1981 , then the $\$ 15$ gain ( $30-15)^{28}$ would be long-term capital gain even though you and your parents (separately or combined) held the stock a year or less (1223 (11)). However, if the property was a gift, very different rules apply. The gain would be short-term since the total holding period by donor and donee was less than one year. The holding

Note that the difference between $\$ 15$ and $\$ 10$ is not taxable at all for income tax purposes.
period rules are more complex when the donor's basis in the property is greater than its f.m.v. at date of gift. For gain purposes, you tack on the donor's holding period to yours, while for loss purposes, you don't.

The tax status of transfers of property to a corporation and distributions from a corporation also depend on the holding period. If two shareholders form a corporation by contributing one building each, and one shareholder held the bujiding eleven months, the other thirteen months; then the length of the holding period of the first shareholder's stock will be computed from the date of contribution while the second shareholder's holding period is thirteen months (Section 1223 (1)).

These few examples illustrate the complexity and arbitrariness of determining holding period necessitated by the capital gain and loss preference. 29 It is understandable that many taxpayers feel that the law is too complex and, therefore, they don't properly comply.

## II. 2 Defining a Capital Asset

Probably the most serious complexity in the tax code arises in defining a capital asset. Defining a capital asset is "one of the most vexatious and slippery technical problems in the income tax field".(21) The tax code defines a capital asset by citing what it is not. ${ }^{30}$ If a taxpayer can fit his transaction into the proper category, he gets a $60 \%$ reduction in income for tax purposes. This is why the special capital gains provisions have been called the

29
It should be noted that holding period would still be required, although on a much simpler plane, for investment credit purposes, Section 355 trade on business rules, depreciation, and possibly for such specialized areas as Regulated Investment Companies' gains (3-month rule).

See Internal Revenue Code Section 1221 which excludes six categories of assets and Section 1222 which limits it to sales or exchanges.
"bargain basement" of the tax law.(22) Much time, energy, money, and planning are expended in this area. To a large extent, the form over substance argument in the tax law originates with this definitional problem. A few examples of the hair splitting that goes on in this area will reinforce the saying "old loopholes never die, they just get bigger". (23) Philip Stern's The Great Treasury Raid(24) has a nice analogy that deserves repeating. He equates the tax law with a dam; the high water being the tax on regular income and the low water being the capital gain tax on preferential income. The erosion of the dam presents a serious problem for the U.S. Income tax system, well-illustrated by the underground economy ${ }^{31}$ or the words of former Secretary of Treasury Barr, "we now face the possibility of a taxpayer revolt if we do not make major reforms in our income taxes". 32

A few examples will help describe the hair splitting involved in defining capital assets.
A. Investor vs. Dealer Status: This distinction in tax status is crucial to income's capital/ordinary classification. If you are an investor or trader in stocks or securities, the gains or losses are capital, even if you trade millions of dollars of stock every few days. If you are a dealer in securities (essentially dealing with clients or customers), the securities do not qualify

See Wall Street Journal October 20,1980 where estimates are as high as $\$ 700$ blllion and Professor Guttman's estimate of a $\$ 150-250$ billion underground economy.

Roger Freeman, Tax Loopholes: the Legend and the Reality p. 11. See also Proposal for Tax Change, Departnent of Treasury 4/30/73. Even if complexity affects only a minority of the population, it still affects the majority through its impact on compliance and the self-assessment system, and by its effect on the morality of the populace. It has been argued that complexity encourages Gresham's Law (bad tax advice will drive out good tax advice due to the cost factor), the Lottery Philosophy (chance of getting audited is small, so why not cheat) and the Underground Fhilosophy (the rich have their loopholes, mine will be nonreporting of income). See also Walter Blum "How the Favored Tax Treatment Affects Taxpayers and Practitioners", Journal of Taxation 4 (1956): 28.
as capital assets and your transactions are ordinary in nature.
In the real estate area (building or land), dealer status also leads to ordinary income treatment while investor status creates capital gains. Unlike the securities area, an occasional sale of real estate every few years could constitute dealer status. The dealer/investor distinction caused such problems that a special section (Section 1237) was enacted to mitigate the problem in certain limited circumstances.

The extent to which this distinction may be stretched was recently evident in a series of revenue rulings dealing with charitable contributions. If an asset is inventory (dealer status), then there are severe limitations (basis) on the charitable contribution deduction allowable under Section 170. If investor status is allowed, then fair market value or some variant of fair market value (f.m.v. - 40\% appreciation) will be allowable, subject to a $30 \%$ or $50 \%$ of AGI limitation. The rulings covered the tax status of individuals donating gems, books, bibles, and plants.
B. Copyright vs. Patent: A copyright, literary, musical or artistic composition is excluded from the capital asset definition (Section 1221 (3)), while patents are specifically allowed as long-term capital assets (Section 1235), even if not held longer than one year. Why the distinction between these essentially similar items exists, is an interesting question? To compound the problem, capital gain status is granted to patent holders whether they are amateurs (investors) or professionals (dealers).
C. Northern Pine vs. Southern Pine Trees: Evergreen trees which are more than six years old and sold for ornamental purposes (Christmas trees) are 1231 asBets which might lead to capital asset treatment of gains while Southern pine trees (life of less than six years) are excluded from capital gain treatment. ${ }^{33}$

See IRC Section 631 (a) \& 1231 (b) (2), and New York Times, January 1, 1980, p. 32.

The horizontal equity and public policy arguments seemed to be ignored here. D. Cash Bonus vs. Qualified Stock Option: A cash bonus is ordinary income when received (or constructively received), while qualified stock options will lead to capital gain treatment even though both are compensation for the same services.
E. Loan vs. Note: A Subchapter S Corporation's shareholders are allowed a loss deduction at the individual level to the extent of their basis in the corporate stock and indebtedness of the corporation to the shareholder. The loss reduces the basis of the stock and debt, but not below zero. If the indebtedness is subsequently repaid, the type of debt will determine the character of the repayment gain. If it is a loan, ordinary income rules will apply; if it is a note, capital gain rules will be in effect. ${ }^{34}$
F. Treasury Bills vs. Treasury Bill Futures: Treasury bills are statutorily defined as non-capital assets (Section 1221 (5)), but treasury bill futures are considered capital assets. ${ }^{35}$ Thus, there is potential for converting ordinary income into capital gains and capital loss into ordinary loss. This conversion concept will be discussed and illustrated in more detail in II. 4 and II.5, below.

Judicial doctrines (e.g. Corn Products and Arrowsmith) further complicate this area. Unfortunately, the complexity introduced by judicial made law is not measured by the quantitative analysis performed unless it is specifically codified or part of the regulations. Thus, the results of the analysis will probably understate the true complexity.

34 See IRC Section 1374 (a) and (c) (2) (A) and (B), and Bernard Barr V. Comm., 80,003 1980 P.H. TC memo.

See Rev. Ruling 78-414, 1978-2 CB 214 and Terence Kane, "Tax Treatment of Treasury Bill Futures", Southern California Law Review 53 (1979): 1555.

## II. 3 Sale or Exchange

In order for a transaction to be eligible for capital gain or loss treatment, it must involve a sale or exchange. Often life's activities don't fit neatly into this criterion, so exceptions, refinements or expansions of the term have been required.
A. Worthless Debt or Securities: As protector of the revenue, the Treasury is mindful of the loss of tax dollars. This is partially the reason for the asymetrical treatment between short-term capital gains and short-term capital losses. The worthlessness of debt or security would not be considered a sale or exchange. Thus, the worthless debt could not be considered a capital loss and would be deductible as ordinary loss without limit. The law, however, expanded the sale or exchange definition to specifically encompass worthlessness (165 (g) and $166(\mathrm{~d})$ ).
B. Loss on Failure to Exercise an Option: Similarly, if a taxpayer bought an option to buy stock and didn't exercise the option, no sale or exchange would have occurred and an ordinary loss would be recognized. Section 1234 was enacted to define the non-exercise as a "sale or exchange" and, therefore, as a capital rather than ordinary loss. Otherwise, a taxpayer could buy an option; if the price decreased, let the option lapse and get ordinary loss. If a favorable price increase occurs, the option would be exercised and a capital gain recognized.
C. Involuntary Conversion: When property is stolen, condemned, burned, or broken, few would classify this as a sale or exchange, but the tax law defines it as such in Section 1231. This inclusion further complicates an already complex code section.
D. Cancellation of a Lease or Distributor's Agreement: If a lessor pays out the lessee in order to vacate the premises, the lessee will treat the money as In exchange for the lease. Similarly, a distributor who is bought out by the
manufacturer from their sales agreement, will treat the transaction as an exchange.
E. Cutting of Timber: By no stretch of the imagination would the pure cutting of timber constitute a sale or exchange, but it is so defined and, therefore, it too is eligible for capital gain treatment (Section $631(a))$.

At this point the average taxpayer must be scratching his head and wondering about the why's and wherefore's of our mysterious tax system, its intricacies and untold traps and treasures.

## II. 4 Conversion of Ordinary Income into Capital Gains

Given a $60 \%$ discount on certain types of income, a taxpayer or his tax advisors exert an enormous amount of energy to fit a transaction into the 'right' framework. Such fitting and the government's response has been a complicating factor throughout the income tax system. ${ }^{36}$ The government sets up an incentive (usually justified under the fiscal policy tool criterion); taxpayers use (abuse) the incentive; the government limits the incentive. On and on, round and round, complicating the system, this vicious cycle persists, and results in inefficiency in both the private and public sector.

Several classic examples of this might be useful to illustrate the point: A. Government wanted to encourage capital investments, so it allowed accelerated depreciation methods for real estate and tangible personal property. Taxpayers utilized the allowable deduction against ordinary income and when the property was sold, the taxpayer recognized capital gains (technically Section 1231 gains). The government felt that this was too much of a good thing, so it imposed depreciation recapture rules. (See Sections 1245, 1250, 1251, 1252,

36 65\% of all code sections are affected by the $C / G / L$ preference. See Table 8 , p. 68 below.
$1254^{37}$ and its effect on $336,311,1031,751,351,361,1239$, etc.)
B. Government wanted to encourage certain economic activities (oil exploration, real estate development, coal mines, cattle ranching, etc.) so favorable tax laws were passed; investors used (abused) the benefits of leverage, deferral and capital gains; tax shelters are now the number one I.R.S. audit target. C. A corporation is doing business that will yield ordinary income. Prior to realizing a substantial portion of the ordinary income, the shareholders sell the stock, liquidate the company or distribute the property, and the shareholders' gain will be capital rather than ordinary. Thus, the taxpayer converted the corporation's ordinary income into his own capital gain. To prevent the above scenario, Section 341 (Collapsible Corporations) was enacted. In a classic example of this, an actor formed a corporation to produce a movie. After previews, but before distribution, the corporation was liquidated so the shareholders had capital gain on the sale of their stock and a basis in the property equal to its fair market value. When the proceeds from the movie were received, they were offset by depreciation deductions. The taxpayer's equivalent of the alchemist's dream was performed (iron into gold, ordinary income into capital gains).

Similar scenarios were common in the construction and real estate areas. Both the structural and conceptual complexity caused by this shift of ordinary income into capital gain back into ordinary income is astounding. If readability tests or educational syntax measures ${ }^{38}$ were applied to Section 341, it

These five sections alone, without its ripple effect on other sections, account for almost 1,000 paragraphs or $2.5 \%$ of the income tax laws total complexity.

See the Flesch Test, Journal of Applied Psychology 32 (1948): 221, or DaleChall Test, Educational Research Bulletin 27 (1948): 11, for development and discussions of the readability test. See Smith and Smith, "Readability: A Measure of the Performance of the Communication Function of Financial Reporting", Accounting Review 46 (July 1971): 552, for the application of these tests to annual report notes.
would probably be the equivalent of 10 on the Richter scale or require postgraduate training to comprehend it. To make matters more complex, similar rules apply to partnership distributions or liquidations (see Section 751). D. The conversion of ordinary income (short-term capital gains) into longterm capital gains and back into ordinary income is also at the heart of the short sale rules (Section 1233) discussed in the holding period subchapter above.

## II. 5 Conversion of Capital Loss into Ordinary Loss

Capital gains are treated favorably vis a vis ordinary income. Capital losses are treated less favorably than ordinary losses. Therefore, the taxpayers try to convert long-term losses into short-term or ordinary losses, and complexity results.
A. A wholly or partially worthless business bad debt is an ordinary loss, while only a non-business bad debt that is wholly worthless constitutes a short-term capital loss, even if outstanding more than one year. Much planning and litigation has gone into this area because of the significantly different tax consequences.
B. Similarly, if a debt by a corporation is an interest-bearing note, then a loss on it will probably be a long-term capital loss (Section 165 (g) (1) and (g) (2) (c)). If it is an open account loan, then Section 166(d) will allow it short-term capital loss treatment.
C. The same criteria and definitional problems are involved in the debt-equity issue (Section 385). If a contribution to the corporation which becomes worthless is deemed to be a loan, then the loss will be a short-term capital loss; if it is construed to be stock, then it will be long-term capital loss. D. A short sale was often used to convert a long-term capital loss into a short-term loss. The government objected to this strategy and instituted the

Section 1233 rules. These complicated rules reconverted the short-term capital loss into long-term ones.
E. One of today's major I.R.S. targets is the tax commodity straddle. Basically, it is aimed at generating a short-term capital loss now and in some future period a long-term capital gain, without incurring any significant market risk. This problem would still exist without a capital asset preference (due to the timing of income problem), but its magnitude would be significant1y reduced.

The above illustrates the complexity of the tax law attributable to the special preferential treatment of capital gains and losses. Some people argue that the definition should be limited, the preferential rate ( $60 \%$ ) should be reduced, or the holding period should be extended. These modifications would limit the advantages of a preference vis a vis other passive and earned incomes, but it would only be a stop gap measure that simplifies little of the existing complexity and adds more uncertainty to the tax law.

## Chapter II Citations

(15) Jerome Hellerstein, Taxes, Loopholes and Morality, p. 28.
(16) Walter J. Blum, "A Handy Sumary of the Capital Gain Arguments", Taxes 35 (1957).
(17) Roger A. Freeman, Tax Loopholes: the Legend and the Reality, p. 41.
(18) Ibid.
(19) Henry C. Simon, Personal Income Taxation, p. 185.
(20) Tables 3 - 6, pp. 13 - 16 above.
(21) Hellerstein, p. 42.
(22) Ibid., p. 28.
(23) Stern, The Great Treasury Raid, p. 271.
(24) Ibid.

Complexity can be measured in terms of either its syntactical or conceptual impact. Syntax complexity deals with the lengtl: of the words or the nature of the sentence structure, while conceptual complexity relates to the comprehension difficulty. Conceptual complexity makes comprehending, implementing, interpreting, and administrating the tax law very difficult for a multitude of reasons. In the language of communications research, you are adding 'noise' to the information system that is causing the message received to differ from the message sent. You not only have to determine what income is (a problem that has plagued accountants for years), but whether the income is ordinary or capital. You not only have to determine the proper period in which a transaction's consequences should be recognized, you have to figure how long the property was held. You have to determine who is the true owner of the property, as well as to distinguish a disposition from a sale or exchange.

A content analysis model to relate the conceptual complexity of the capital gain or loss provision is developed in this chapter. A review of the education, psychology, behavioral science, and communications literature demonstrates that content analysis was appropriate for measuring a concept's complexity. ${ }^{39}$ The education and psychology literature basically discusses complexity and its effect on the reader. Many studies have been done on audiences of preschool, grade school, college, adult, retarded, or normal participants to judge the effect of complexity on memory and comprehension. Reading was the princi-

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See footnote 6, as well as George Gerbner, et. al. The Analysis of Communication Content, (New York: J. Wiley \& Sons, 1969). Frederick Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, (New York: Holt Rinehart \& Winston, 1964); and Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson, The Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. II, 2nd edition, (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1968).
pal focus of these studies although studies on math skills and word problems have also been a popular avenue of research.

Content analysis has been defined as the attempt to score, categorize and obtain useful objective data from written material in a testable and reliable manner. The use of words, sentences, paragraphs, themes, time/space as subdivisions is prevalent in many previous content analysis studies. The aim of these studies was to produce an index which represents some attitudinal level objectively. Two basic concepts of content analysis are the recording unit and the context unit. A 'recording unit' is defined as the 'smallest body of content in which the appearance of a reference is counted'. In this study, the reference will be the theme of capital gain or loss preference, and it will generally be explicitly stated within the context unit. The 'context unit' is the largest body of content that may be examined in characterizing a recording unit. (25) The paragraph will be the context unit in this study. The relative frequency of the theme (capital gains or losses), compared with the total number of paragraphs in the income tax law, will determine the conceptual complexity attributable to the specific preference. The methodology utilized in this study is reinforced by the following quote:

> The most obvious case occurs when source materials are volumnous and complicated, and when they contain all sorts of different kinds of subject matters. Especially if detailed investigation of a complicated question is involved, such a case is the exact predicament that content analysis was originally invented to deal with.(26)

The present study will utilize content analysis to measure the tax laws' conceptual complexity attributable to capital gain and loss rules rather than structural complexity. I chose the Internal Revenue Code of 1954 and the income tax regulations (final, proposed and temporary) as my data base, since they represent the income tax law of the United States and official interpretations thereof. I did not include public and private rulings because a signifi-
cant number of areas are not ruled on. 40 I did not use court cases as part of my data base for several reasons. The population of court cases (district court, tax court, tax court memos, court of claims, court of appeals, board of tax appeals, board of tax appeal memos, and supreme court) is astoundingly voIumnous and due to the appeals procedure heavily redundant. Second, the preand post-1954 code section numbering could be the same or different which would make code classifications difficult. Further, an issue (theme) could be made non-applicable to the issue at hand, and thus, the objectivity, reliability and testability of the model would be reduced.

The Internal Revenue Code of 1954 is the U.S. Income tax law. I used the Prentice-Hall, Inc. May 1, 1979 edition which includes amendments made by public laws enacted subsequent to P.L. 591, August 16, 1954. It does not include the several laws that have been passed since April, 1979. Thus, the Windfall Profits Tax, the Installment Sales Revision Act of 1980 , Foreign Investment in Real Property Tax Act of 1980 , Bankruptcy Tax Act, and any post1979 technical corrections acts or miscellaneous tax bills will not be reflected ir tinis study. It was necessary to have some lagged cut-off date in order to allow time for regulations to be proposed for the code sections under study. I will use as my code data base, Subtitle A, Chapters 1-6, covering Code Sections \#l - 1564 inclusive, and the Prentice-Hall Federal Regulations, June 1, 1980 edition, volumes l-3 will be utilized to complement or interpret the code. I feel this is particularly appropriate, since Code Section 7805 expressly gives the Secretary of the Treasury the right to prescribe all needful rules and regulations for the enforcement of the code.

40 See Rev. Procedure 81-10, 1981-13 IRB 44 and Regulation 601.201 (S) (2) which discuss various issues that will not be ruled on.

Originally, my study was going to encompass the regulations only, but it was noted that a significant number of code sections have no regulations and this would bias the analysis. Further, some code sections are clearer or more explicit than others and others leave the prescribing of the law to the regulations. 41 The code alone could not be the total data base since much of the explanation and interpretation occurs at the regulation level. Therefore, the code and regulations will be the data base, even though there might be some double counting of context units.

A statistical sample of 35 out of 580 code sections demonstrated there was no significant difference between using lines or paragraphs as the context unit, while using the capital gain and loss preference as the theme (see Appendix A). Because of potential writing style differences of law drafters and to minimize the potential problem of varied type-setting and page size, the paragraph was, therefore, selected as the context unit. A paragraph is defined, for purposes of this study, as any group of words that commence with an indentation from the margin. Thus, the term 'paragraph' would also encompass subparagraphs, parts, subparts, examples, tables, charts, or numerical examples. A slight amount of subjectivity is introduced in this counting process, since an indent such as $1.72-15(f)$ where an example's introduction is followed by three examples will count as three, not four paragraphs. This is necessary to eliminate paragraphs that have no theme (recording unit) embodied in it. I have also ignored section titles in the counting. Thus, Regulations 1.263(d) and $1.263(d)-1$ do not count. By counting indentations, certain sections will be given undue weight, especially when a list of items is presented. For example, Regulation 1.190-2(b) (10), describing a handicapped toilet room, has

See Internal Revenue Code Sections 385 and 1502 , for example.
sixteen paragraphs, most of which are width and depth measurements.
I have integrated final, temporary and proposed regulations to increase the scope and reduce redundancy. The final Sec. 541 regulations that apply to pre-1969 period were ignored, and post-1968 proposed regulations were counted In its place. Similarly, the post-1968 regulations of Sec. 665-668 were used in the count, and not pre-1969 regulations.

The second phase of the model involves the analyzing of all 584 code sections and their respective regulations to determine whether the recording unft (the capital gain and loss concept) is complicating a context unit (a paragraph). In many situations, the term capital gain or loss will be explicitly used. In that case, a counting of one theme per paragraph will be utilized. Therefore, if capital gains or losses is discussed three times in one paragraph, it counts as one recording unit per context unit. Conversely, if one paragraph includes one capital gain or loss theme and several other themes, that paragraph will also be considered to be complicated by the preference under study. If the sale or exchange concept, or the holding period idea, is inherent in the paragraph, this too shall be considered an explicit example of the theme being present.

A more difficult problem involves the less obvious situation in which no explicit mention of capital gains or losses is made, but the theme is embodied in the paragraph. I will give a few examples and discuss how $I$ treated these situations to maintain rellability and objectivity. Both Sections 311 and 336 discuss the taxation of a distributing (redeeming) or liquidating corporation on the distribution of property to shareholders. Neither code section mentions depreciation recapture, a fundamental complicating factor due to capital gain and loss special treatment. Code sections $1245,1250,1251,1252,1254$ recapture rules override the non-recognition of gain sections such as 311 and 335 .

My count would take the recapture/capital gain theme into account by adding one to the code section count due to the preference. Similarly, Section 188 discusses the amortization of certain expenditures for child care facilities. There is no mention of the capital gain theme in the code or regulations; yet depreciation recapture under 1245 and 1250 apply to these facilities when sold or disposed of at a gain. Again, the code section will be considered to have one paragraph with a preference theme.

Section 483 involves the concept of characterizing income as interest income or capital gain. Its effect on personal holding company status, sub-chapter-S status, trust rules, and installment sales is mind boggling. To try and capture all the nuances of complexity, as well as the secondary and terciary effects of this preference, I used several authoritative resource books as references.(27) In addition, to imporve the reliability of my model, I reviewed the findings of Jack Schroeder's study (28) to see how he rated the various sections, and I reconciled any differences (see Appendix B). Basically, discrepancies between our two studies arose from changes in the law between 1974 and 1979; his study had three categories (all, some, none), while my study utilizes a more continuous function; his used court cases and rulings and ignored the regulations, while mine looked objectively at just the code and regulations; and he generalized a whole area as somewhat preference-inspired, when only a small piece was attributable to capital gain and loss rules.

Beyond these relatively minor differences, his study has some serious limitations. His study covered only Chapter 1 of the Internal Revenue Code, Sections 1-1388, while I examined Chapters 1-6, Sections 1-1564 which constitutes Subtitle A - Income Taxes. Leaving out consolidated returns and controlled groups (Chapter 6) is a serious omission. His study did not quantify complexity, thus, he assumed that all code sections were equally complex. Further, regulations were not considered at all in his study.

To further test the reliability of my study and its results, I enlisted a panel of tax experts to list the top ten complex income tax code and regulation sections. It was felt that this survey should reflect similar results to the complexity model's findings. The data and results are presented in Appendix $C$. The results of this informal survey support the measurement model's findings.

## Potential Limitations of the Model and its Application

Objectivity, reliability and testability have all been stressed in the communications literature.(29) I have formulated my complexity model to maximize all three of these characteristics. This introduced some limitations to my study. For example, judicial law, not codified, was omitted from the input. 42 One could try to input court cases, rulings and commentary into the model, but this would increase the subjectivity of the study. The cost of losing objectivity, reliability and testability was felt not worth the added benefits.

Another potential weakness of the study is that all paragraphs are assumed equally complex (simple). This is obviously not true. It might be interesting to randomly select paragraphs of code and regulations and test them for syntactical or conceptual complexity, but this will be deferred to future studies.

Another potential criticism is that because a section has many paragraphs does not mean that it is complex in application, since a full explanation might reduce complexity. Habitual readers of tax law know that, at least for tax regulations, this is not the case. 43

42
For example, the Corn Products (55-2 USTC 9746) and Arrowsmith (52-2 USTC 9527) doctrines would not be reflected explicitly in the study, but they do complicate the law due to the $C / G / L$ preference.
43
In addition, Appendix $C$ confirms the relationship between volume of paragraphs and degree of complexity.

## Chapter III Citations

(25) Bernard Berelson, Content Analysis in Communication Research, p. 135.
(26) Thomas F. Carney, Content Analysis - A Technique for Systematic Inference from Comunications, p. 64 .
(27) CCH Standard Federal Tax Reporter 1981 edition, McNee, Nelson \& Whitmire, Federal Taxation on Partnerships and Partners (Boston: Warren, Gorham \& Lamont); Bittker and Eustice, Federal Income Taxation of Corporations and their Shareholders, (Boston: Warren, Gorham \& Lamont, 1980); Prentice-Hall Federal Tax Course, 4 th edition, (Englewood, New Jersey, 1979).
(28) Jack Schroeder, Potential Simplification of the Federal Income Tax Law by Eliminating Special Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses.
(29) Berelson, p. 128.

## MEASUREMENT MODEL'S APPLICATION

The model will measure the complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preference by examining all 584 income tax code sections and their respective regulations. Complexity is defined as the number of paragraphs (context unit) that contain the capital gain or loss theme (recording units) as compared to total paragraphs. Table 7, attached, shows the process used to determine the complexity in the income tax law introduced by capital gains and losses and the results. This determination is calculated in a two-step process. All of the code and regulations paragraphs are counted, added and totalled (i.e. 9040 paragraphs in the code, 31,422 paragraphs in the regulations). Each code section's relative weight can, thus, be calculated. Second, each code and regulation is analyzed for the theme of capital gains or losses. The percentage of capital gain or loss paragraphs to total paragraphs on a code section-bycode section basis will determine the capital gains complexity attributable to that section. The capital gain complexity multiplied by the relative complexity of a section (summed for all the sections) will determine the total complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preference. At this point, an example might be helpful to explain the mechanization. Assume that code section 1502 (consolidated returns) is the focus of our attention. Table 7, Line 576 contains the vital statistics. There is one code paragraph and seven hundred and fifty-seven regulation paragraphs for that code section. Seven hundred and fifty-eight paragraphs out of 40,462 total paragraphs for all sections means that $1.87 \%$ is the weight of this section. Eighty-five of the regulation paragraphs include the preference under study, so $11.2 \%$ of this section's complexity $1 s$ due to the capital gain and loss preference. Relative section weight times capital gain complexity produces the weighted average complexity attribut-
able to the capital gain and loss preference (. $21 \%$ ).

## Findings

The model shows that the capital gain and loss special treatment has contributed to over $15 \%$ of the tax law's complexity. That one concept or theme could cause so much difficulty is a very interesting finding. The tax law is designed to tax the income of our society (GNP might be a rough proxy for this). As mentioned in Chapter I.5, $1 \%$ of GNP was raised in new equity issues during the $1970^{\prime}$ s. Only $7 \%$ to $9 \%$ of all individual tax returns showed any capital gain or loss at all, and yet, this one theme has complicated the law by over 15\%.

Another interesting finding of this content analysis model is that 383 out of 584 ( $65 \%$ ) income tax code and regulation sections are affected in some small or large way by the capital gain and loss preference. Thus, it is not just a few major sections of the law dealing with capital gain and loss that make it complex, but rather it is a widespread complication to the whole system (see Table 8).

A11 584 code sections, in descending order of complexity, are listed in Table 9. It is comforting to note (from the point of view of reliability) that many of the issues that are considered complex by the legislature are high on the list. For example, several bills have been proposed in the last few years to simplify the depreciation area. Section 167 (depreciation) is number two on the complexity list. The pension tax law introduced in 1974 (ERISA), has been facetiously labeled the "Lawyer's and Accountant's Employment Act of 1974". Section 401 (pensions) tops the hit parade, and eight sections in the pension area (subchapter D, Part I, Sections 401-415) are in the top fifty complex code sections. Another area that is considered highly complex under the content
analysis model is investment tax credits (subchapter A, Part IV) with three sections in the top fifty. Primary justification for the Installment Sales Revision Act of 1980 was its previous complexity. Section 453 ranks number fif-ty-seven in complexity. The foreign area has long been viewed as a significantly complicating factor in our tax law. This assertion is borne out by the fact that eleven sections primarily applicable to the foreign area of the tax law are in the top fifty (Sections $861,993,954,955,904,1248,367,964,901$, 995, and 913). Table 10 summarizes the forty-nine sections that include more than two hundred paragraphs in their code and regulations, by subchapter classification.

Another interesting insight into this area is an analysis of the informal survey of tax experts discussed in Chapter III and Appendix C. The amount of complexity attributable to the forty-four sections selected by the panel was $40 \%$ (see Appendix C, Table 13).



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SUBCHAPTER - PART
CH. 1

| A | IV | Investment Tax Credits | 3 |
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| B | II | Annuities | 1 |
|  | III | Tax Exempt Interest | 1 |
|  | VI | Depreciation, Charitable Contribution, Net Operating Loss | 3 |
|  | IX | Travel and Entertainment | 1 |
| C | II | Collapsible Corporation | 1 |
|  | III | Foreign Reorganization | 1 |
|  | v | Carryovers in Corporate Acquisition | 1 |
|  | VI | Debt/Equity | 1 |
| D | I | Pension Plans | 8 |
|  | II | Stock Options | 1 |
| E | II | At Risk Rules | 1 |
| F | I | Tax Exempt Organizations | 1 |
|  | II | Private Foundations | 2 |
|  | III | Unrelated Income | 2 |
| G | II | Personal Holding Company | 1 |
| H | II | Mutual Savings Bank - Reserves | 1 |
| I | I | Depletion | 3 |
| J | I | Estate and Trust - Special Rulcs | 1 |
| M | II | REIT | 1 |
| N | I | Foreign Source of Income | 2 |
|  | III | Subpart F Income, FTC | 5 |
|  | IV | DISC | 2 |



IV

CH. 2

CH. 6 A

Self-employment Tax

Consolidated Returns

Recapture, Sale of Foreign Corporate Stock

1

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49 Sections

## CHAPTER V

## TAX EXPENDITURE/COMPLEXITY MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Chapter III developed a complexity measurement model and Chapter IV derived a percentage of complexity attributable to the capital gain and loss preference. In this chapter, I will build on the prior findings to develop a tax expenditure/complexity measure (TEC). This index could be useful in determining the efficiency ${ }^{44}$ of a specific provision. I define efficiency as how complex a preference makes the tax law compared with how much tax savings is produced. This might be useful to judge the best alternative tax rule to raise (lower) revenue at minimum cost (complexity). It can also be used to compare relative efficiency among various competing proposals or preferences.

The concept of tax expenditure owes its origin to Professor Stanley S. Surrey who, as Assistant Secretary of Tax Policy in late 1967, described tax expenditures as "those provisions of federal income tax containing special exemptions, exclusions, deductions, and other tax benefits [which] were really methods of providing governmental financing assistance".(30) However, since this assistance was off-budget, it was not reviewed on an annual or consistent basis. In 1971-1973 tax expenditure budgets were roughly \$60-65 billion or $25 \%$ of the regular budget. In fiscal 1980, the tax expenditure budget was $\$ 81$ billion, or $33 \%$ of the direct expenditure budget, and the Congressional Budget Office predicts that tax expenditures will increase to $\$ 350$ billion by fiscal 1985.45

The concept of "tax expenditures" was finally recognized as being so im-

[^4]portant that a mandatory listing of the tax expenditure is now required as a supplement to the budget process by the Congressional Impoundment Control Act of 1974.

Basically, Surrey and others break up the tax law into two parts:

1. Rules that are necessary to carry out the revenue-raising function of a tax on income, and
2. Exceptions and modifications of these rules that reduce some people's taxes and not others.

These divisions correspond to the discussion in Chapter $I$ of unavoidable and avoidable tax rules. Obviously, this classification scheme has not been without its share of controversy. 46

1 - The 'normal' tax structure: The tax expenditure concept assumes a basic theoretical income measurement model and equal treatment of all income. Variations in either amount or method gives rise to tax expenditures. The income concept discussed in Chapter $I$, with modifications, is ascribed to be the base. Some critics feel that a consumption-based income model should be used. Thus, some have argued that capital gains and losses are not a tax expenditure, since under a consumption-based definition of income, capital gains or losses would not be taxed at all.

2 - Can a normal tax structure be defined? Some critics argue that no normal tax structure can be defined, and is purely arbitrary. Any deviation from this arbitrary structure is not a tax expenditure, but a modification of an already arbitrary tax structure.

3 - Behavioral changes due to tax expenditure: Some economists feel
that the numbers in the tax expenditures are inaccurate and overstated, since

See Tax Expenditure: A Primer, for a good general discussion of this area.
they do not take into account behavioral changes due to the preference.(31) Despite these criticisms, the tax expenditure concept has become an increasingly valuable tool in the discussion of income taxes and budgets.

The tax expenditure/complexity measure will be developed as follows. The tax expenditure budget is reviewed for the amount of tax savings attributable to a given preference. This amount will be divided by the complexity weight generated by the model developed in Chapters III and IV. The higher the index number, the more efficient the tax expenditure is.

From this, and future analyses, a matrix could be developed to measure which provisions are efficient, inefficient and need further study.

FIGURE 2
TEC MATRIX


The capital gain and loss preference, and a rough estimate of the tax preference and complexity due to tax exempt interest income, will be presented to illustrate the concept, using the U.S. Congressional Budget Office June 1979 list of tax expenditures for the TEC ratio (see Table 11 for the full list of tax expenditures). Capital gains tax expenditures are composed of the following:

FIGURE 3
Capital gains tax expenditure
$\$$ Millions

| Capital Gain - Coal | 85 |
| :--- | ---: |
| Capital Gain - Timber | 455 |
| Capital Gain - Iron | 20 |
| Capital Gain - Farm | 395 |
| Capital Gain - other than Mineral, Farm and Timber | 10,775 |
|  | $11,730^{47}$ |

FIGURE 4
TAX EXEMPT INTEREST INCOME TAX EXPENDITURE

|  | Millions |
| :--- | ---: |
| State and Local Pollution Control Bonds Interest | 460 |
| State and Local Industrial Development Interest | 585 |
| State and Local Housing Bond Interest | 820 |
| State and Local Debt Interest | 5,880 |
|  |  |

The complexity attributable to capital gain and loss preference is $15 \%$, while the tax exempt bond interest exemption is roughly $3 \% .48$

The TEC ratio for capital gains would be $\frac{11.73}{.15}$ or 78.2 , while for tax exempt interest income it would be $\frac{7.745}{.03}$ or 258.2 . Thus, the tax exempt bond Interest preference is more than three times as efficient as the capital asset preference. Within the same year, these numbers are comparable. However, in comparing different years, an adjustment for inflation would be required.
\$10,005B of capital gain preference, due to death, is omitted since under our existing system, death is not a recognizable event that triggers gain or loss. Therefore, the preference is a recognition of income tax expenditure and not a capital gain and loss tax expenditure. Similarly, $\$ 1.010 \mathrm{~B}$ tax expenditure for deferral on home sales and $\$ 535 \mathrm{M}$ permanet exclusion of principal residence (Section 121) are not included, since it is a recognition preference.

Sections 103, 265 , and 75 are fully complicated by the tax exempt interest preference, and Sections $171,312,381,1377,1372,643,702,809,818,822,852$, and 1232 are impacted in varying degrees.

## 

Phis list incjudes all the ta\% expenditures liated in the mast rocent Eux expenditures budgets murlished in the Speciaj hanly:es of the U.3. Budget and by the Congressionai Eucget ofeice. The lirt, like the tax eypendirures cudgets, is organjecti by the functional rutego:ies used in the direct expenditures burigec. The adthcity for and descriptions of most ent-ies were aciapted from Tex Exandituses: keiation-
 duat $=0$ gisions (ü.S. Senate Comirtee on the Budget, ly7a). Descrigejons of tax expendjtures aded or substantially modified since thit publication are based on the committee reports or the fevenue Act of 1978, the Energy Tax net of 1978, and the Forcign :arned Incoma Act of 1978. Cost estimates are taken from five-year Rudget Rzoincticns ard Aiternative Bugqetary Stretciess for Fiscal feaz' 1930 -1934, Sujolenental
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## Tax experditure

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IRC secs. $104(a)(4)$,
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IRC secs. 911-913

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& \text { Code (IRC) secs. } \\
& 212,113 ; \text { Internal }
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Revenue Regulation
(IR Reg.) 1.61-2;
court decisions

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\text { qeosta } 7500 \\
\text { poasul } 75:
\end{gathered}
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Military pensions based on ais-
ability are often not subject to
ways. persons requirea to live
$\begin{aligned} & \text { in work camps under hardship con- } \\ & \text { ditions may exelude a portion of }\end{aligned}$
excess roseign living
housing costs. U.S. Government employces may exclude certain housing and othez allowances and benefits.

> Corporations established to export U.S.-made products may defer indefinitely the corporate tax on a part of their profits. The profits of foreign subsidiaries of U.S. corporations are generaily not taxed by the U.S. until the money is returnec to this country, permitring indefi-
nite deferral of the U.S. tax.

Formerly, the law allowed profits
 sphare countries to be taxed at a - wito aq itcm pue 7no paseud butoq inated by 1980.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Fesearch and development costs } \\
& \text { may be deducted as current } \\
& \text { expenses in the year incurred } \\
& \text { instead of being capiralized and } \\
& \text { charged against the income they } \\
& \text { produce as it is earned. }
\end{aligned}
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## IRC secs. 921, 922

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## 1,260 <br> 1,260

Deferral of tax
on incone of domesTeuotituionut otf sales corporations (EJsIT)

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## IRC secs. 991-997

Deferzal of tax
on ircome of
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## 1,780 <br> IRC sec. 174 <br> 3.780

sPACE,
AND
1,780 IRC sec. 174 Expensing of
research and
development
expenditures

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IRC sec. $631(c)$
Lesscrs of coal coposits can
arrange the terms of the lease
so that the royalties are taxed
at the lower capital geins rates
instead of as ordinary income.

Tax credits are allowed for home Tax credits are allowed for home
insulation and otner energysaving features and for installing solar and wind devices as alternative energy sources in private homes.

Credits are also granted to businessas for various energy-saying features and alternative energy sources.
interest on State
and local govern-
ment pollution
control bonds

Capital gairs treat-
ment of royalties
on coal Residential energy
credits
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nesses ("industrinl deveinpment taxable industrial development !jas.omou 'pamptre axe spuoa
 suxesuos əวentid of peseet sotf remains exempt from Federal income tax.

> Estimated
> Cost Fiscai
Year 1980
( $\$$ millions)
Authority


| Description |
| :---: |
| 'f (cont.)- |
| Builders and developers often |
| pay for the water and sewage |
| Eacilities for their develop- |
| ments. The facilities then |
| become the property of the local |
| private utility serving the |
| devalopnert. The contributions |
| are not considered taxable |
| income to the utility. |

Certified pollution control
facilities may be written off
over a s-year period in lieu
of being depreciated cver their
useful lives. This results in
larger deductions early in the
life of the property and no
deductions later. mhe cost is
negative in 1980 because the
amortization of earlier years
resulted in smaller depreciation
deductions in 1980 .

[^5]\[

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\begin{aligned}
& 20 \\
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\end{aligned}
$$
\] Iesisore of iron ore deposits

can arrange the terms of the lease so that．the royalties are treated as capital gaine rather than ordinary income．

> Fhe eapenses of rehabilitating a certified historic structure may be either amortized over
> a 5－year period or treated as expenses subject to accelerated depreciation．
 Unincorporated farmers may use
the casi accounting method for
all expenses，ever those becom－
ing a part of inventories or
producing incone in subsequent
years，and are thus allowad to
deduct currentlyexpenses
another type of business would
have to capitalize．In addi－
tion，all farmers can take cut－
rent deductions for such capital
expenditures as soin and warer
conservation and land clearing
expenses．

IRC sec． $631(\mathrm{c})$
YRE secs． $167(n)$,
$167(0), 191,280 \mathrm{~B}$

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mer．of certain
ordinary income


## IRC sec. $103(b)$

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Exclusion of
interest on State
and local indus-
trial development
bonds

Exemption of
credit union income

## 100 <br> $\begin{array}{ll}0 & n \\ -1 & \infty\end{array}$

Banks and savings and loan associ- tions are ajlo:red to decluct as additions to their reserves fior outstanding loans (or, for Tiutual institutions, a percentage of net ircome). For commercial bariks this dedution is slovily being compute the deduction based on
 way other businesses do now.


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> Credit unions are not subject
> to the reaeral corporation in-
come tax.

and equipment in the first year of
use in addition to their regular
depreciation for the year.
Fesidential rerital property may be
depaeciated by accelerated methods
for tax purposes, although
straight-line depreciation is
considered the normal method for
buildings.

IRC sec. $167(j)$
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Depreciation on
rental housing in
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ILC secs.
1201-1254
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Capital gains
(other than farm-
ing, timber, iron
ore, and coal)
$\begin{array}{r}\text { Estimated } \\ \text { cost Fiscal } \\ \text { Year } 1930 \\ \text { (S millions) } \\ \hline\end{array}$ Tax expenditure

Businessinen may take up to 10 per－
cani of the cost of machinery and
equipment as a credit against
their income tax．The extra
credit for employee stocik pur－
chases（TRASOPs）and the limited
credit for buildings are included
elsewhere in this list．
 the 10 percent investment crecit

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\begin{aligned}
& \text { Eefore } 1976 \text {, railway cars could } \\
& \text { be a!nortized over a s-year period } \\
& \text { instead of being depreciated. } \\
& \text { Sore of this equipment is still } \\
& \text { producing income; if it had been } \\
& \text { subject to normal depreciation } \\
& \text { its owners taxes would have been } \\
& \text { higher in eariier years and would } \\
& \text { have been } \$ 40 \text { million lower in } \\
& 1980 .
\end{aligned}
$$

| Investment credit 18,460 | IRC secs． 38, |
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| （other than for | $40-50$ |
| whsops and rehabil－ |  |
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5－year amortiza－
tion on railroad
roiling stock

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& \text { IRC sec } \\
& \operatorname{lo3}(b)(4)(A)
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\text { IRC sec. } 184
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Meals and lodging furnished employ-
ees on the employers premises for
the convenience of the employer
are not taxabie income to the
employere.

Corporations are allowed an additional 1 or 2 percent investrent credit (in addition to the normal 10 percent) if they contribute an equivalent amount of their stock this provision vas added to the FO 704 पо!701pay xed әu7 Kq Mer 1975: "TRASOP" stands for Tax Reduction Act Stock Ownership

 ship Plail.

> Within certain limits, individuals who itemize deductions and coiporations may deduct contributions to educational institutions and organizations.


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 IRC
## 350

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## 450

Exclusion of

Investrient creait wnership plans
Estimated
cust Fiscal
Year 1980
Tax expenditure (S millions)

Deauctibility of
charitable contri-
butions to other
than education
and health
1,625
705
IRC sec. 1348
IRC sec. $44 A$

IRC sec. 44 A

## Descrivtion

IAL SERVICES (cont.)- - - - - -
Within certain limits, indivi-
duals who itemize deductions and
corporations may deduct contribu-
tions to charitable, relisicus,
scientific, veteran, and amateur
sports organiations and institu-
tions; to societies for the pre-
venticn of cruelty to animals or
children; to Federal, state, and
locai governments; and to fratar-
nalorganizations for charitable
uses.
 income--vages and self-employment income--is 50 percent, although. the statutory rate on investment ued əuoวuT "peuzpoun, มวч70 pue be as high as 70 percent.

A credit of up to $\$ 400$ for one
dependent or $\$ 800$ for tho or mot dependent or $\$ 800$ for two or more
dependents is ailowed to individepencients is ailowed to indivi-
duals and couples who maintain
 or disabled dependents and must pay for theif care in order to
work.

IRC secs. 44 B,
$51-53$
IRC secs. 44 B,
51-53, $6501(\mathrm{q})$
$\underset{\sim}{n}$ Targeted jobs
credit
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Credit for employ- mont of arDC reci- pienics and public 

incentive prograns

## General jobs credit

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& \text { Eor taxable yeare } 1977 \text { and } 1078 \text {, } \\
& \text { enjloyers could claim a credit } \\
& \text { for a part of their additional } \\
& \text { payroll if they had expanded } \\
& \text { their work force. }
\end{aligned}
$$ Employers may take a credit for

a percentage of the wages paid in
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 :s7otィvoj pue ;suejozan eio ueu vocational rehabilitation referrals; and cooperative education
students. students.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Education provided or paid for } \\
& \text { by an employer for an employee } \\
& \text { is not included in the employea's } \\
& \text { taxable income; the tax expendi- } \\
& \text { ture arises fromeducation that } \\
& \text { is not "job related." }
\end{aligned}
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IFC sec． $104(2)(1)$ ：
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Workmen＇s compensation benefits are nontaxable．

Payments for death or disability
due to black lung disease are not
taxable． Unempioyment congensation is
generally not taxable unless
adjustedgross income exceeds
$\$ 20.000$ for a single individual
or $\$ 25$ ，ovo for a married couple
filing jointly．
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Disability insur－
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Exclusion of other
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premiums on group
term life insurance Exciusion of other employee benefits: Premiuns on accident and disability insurance

## Exclusion of ocher

 employee benefits: Incone of trusts to finance suoples.ental unemploymentbenefits benefits
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also allowed to persons receiving
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system who are under aye 65 ．

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Administration are tax－exempt．
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| jar expenciture | $\begin{gathered} \text { Escimatca } \\ \text { cost Fiscal } \\ \text { Year l930 } \\ \text { (\$ millions) } \end{gathered}$ | Authority | Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| Credits £cr political contributions | 100 | IPC sec. 41 | Individuals are allowed a tax credit of 50 percent of the amount contributed for up to $\$ 100$ given to political parties and candidates. |
| - - - - - - - - - - GENERAL PURPOSE FISCAL ASSISTANCE- - - - - - - - - - - |  |  |  |
| Exclusion of interest on general purpose State and | 5,880 | IRC sec. 103 | The interest on $S$ tate and local government obligations is gerer- |
| lccal deot |  |  | tax. |
| Deductibility of nonbusiness state and local taxes (ottier than on | 12,450 | IRC sec. 164 | Incividuals who itemize deducticns may deduct state and local income, personal property, and |
| owner-occupied |  |  | property taxes are included else- |
| homes) |  |  | where in this listing. |
| Tax credit for | 730 | IRC sec. 936 | Corporations doing business in |
| corporations doing |  |  | Fuerto Rico or other U.S. posses- |
| tusiness in U.S. |  |  | sions, except the Virgin Islands, |
| posseesions |  |  | may ccedit the tax owed on any income earned in the possessicas |
|  |  |  | against their Federal income ta\%. |
|  |  |  | thereby exempting such income |
|  |  |  | frorn U.S. tax. |



## Chapter V Citations

(30) Surrey, Pathways to Tax Reform, preface vil. (31) Boskin, Federal Tax Reform: Myths and Realities, p. 237.

## POTENTIAL FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSIONS

This study applied a research methodoloy used in the communications literature (content analysis) to the field of taxation. In doing this study, two broad potential areas of future research have emerged. One would apply the concepts of this study to other areas (other preferences or other types of tax systems). The other would be to expand or apply the capital gain or loss preference findings to related disciplines or increase the scope of the complexity model's development (reduce its limitations).

The first branch of potential research might encompass the following areas. A worthwhile study might be to investigate the effect of complexity on the underground economy. ${ }^{49}$ The underground economy is becoming a large problem for our society with estimates of its magnitude ranging from $\$ 100$ billion to \$700 billion of income. To put these numbers in perspective, the total federal budget is about $\$ 700$ billion for 1981. The U.S. income tax system is basically a voluntary assessment one. The foregone tax revenue from the subterranean economy is substantial. 50 If the Internal Revenue Service's administrative, comp

49
See Walter Blum, "How the Favored Tax Treatment Affects Taxpayers and Practitioners", for an early (1956) discussion of potential effect of complexity on the underground economy mentality; Secretary of Treasury, Proposal for Tax Change, 4/30/73, p. 19; and M. Ginsburg, Tax Simplification: A Practitioner's View, where he discusses complexity and breakdown in the self-assessment system.

See New York Times, May 12, 1981, in which the IRS estimates that tax cheating is on the rise. In 1976, $\$ 28$ B of taxes were not paid by individuals and in 1978, \$2.3B of taxes were not paid by corporations. See also Chapter 12 of Hellerstein, Taxes, Loopholes and Morality, for a discussion of complexity and moral breakdown. The editorial page of the New York Times (4/15/81) discusses the problem of comprehension and complexity of the income tax system on the average citizen. They argue that "complexity corrupts", and "that mystery is the ultimate enemy of democracy". To paraphrase an old saying, if complexity corrupts, absolute complexity corrupts absolutely. With our tax law continually becoming more complex, the need for simplification may be more important than ever.
liance and collections resources could be redirected from issues such as capital gain and loss preferences and toward the underground economy, the whole system could benefit.

In 1973, a study on public attitudes on faimess of the income tax was conducted. (32) $52 \%$ of the respondents believed the income tax was the fairest way to raise federal revenue. A more recent questionnaire might be developed to gauge today's public reactions. The survey should also discover what aspects are perceived to be unfair. My own priors are that capital gains, tax shelters, and other preferences that complicate the law are perceived as unfair and encourage the breakdown of our voluntary tax compliance system. It is not unusual for people to say that the rich have their tax shelters and loopholes, so what is wrong with my non-reporting of income.

Completing the TEC matrix (Figure 2, p.77) by analyzing other income tax preference's complexity would put the various preferences efficien $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{y}$ in perspective. The same analysis applied in this s\%dy could be extended to the estate and gift, or state and local, tax areas, for example.

The impact of communications analysis to taxation could be explored in various ways. The area of estates, gifts, state and local taxes, as well as foreign taxes could be analyzed using content analysis. Several readability or comprehension tests exist ${ }^{51}$ that could be applied to the tax area. It could measure the required reading level to understand the law. A study of the best presentation format for comprehension purposes could be performed, 52 or the ef-

Flesch Test and Dale-Chall Test, see footnote
See P.C. Wason, "The Drafting of Rules", The New Law Journal, 118 (June 6, 1968): 548; and Patricia Wright, "Alternatives to Prose". Basically, four format possibilities were presented: simple prose, bureaucratic writing, tables, and flow charts.
fect of "noise" in the communications system could be analyzed. 53
The dramatically increasing financial resources available to pension plans and other similar organizations has been noted in recent years. An analysis of its effect on the existing tax incentives to invest and on capital formation is an area deserving of future research.

The second broad area of research involves reducing the limitations of the study and increasing its scope. In analyzing Appendix $C$, below, it was found that certain areas of the tax law were complex, but their paragraph count was relatively low. A prime example of this is the reorganization (Section 368) which was cited by seven, out of nine, participants as complex, but was ranked 176 in terms of paragraph complexity. This area's regulations were adopted in 1954, and much of the complexity is embodied in the court cases and their interpretation of 'business purpose', 'continuity of interest', etc. Refinement of the present model could be designed to improve it.

The quantification of the costs and benefits of a tax preference such as capital gains and losses would be a worthwhile project including the measurement of behavioral changes due to the preference. There have been several studies on Investment tax credit and its effect on investment and similar research could be tried in the capital gain and loss area.

The elimination of the capital gain and loss preference's effect on the marginal and effective tax structure would be a useful analysis. One recent study showed that the elimination of the capital gain and loss preference, and some other changes in the law could result in a maximurn marginal tax rate of

See Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver, The Mathematical Theory of Communications, (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949). If complexity affects comprehensibility, then the meaning of the message received by the taxpayer could be very different than the transmitter's (Congress).

This new tax system could be analyzed from the Adam Smith criterion model point of view. Many economists have argued that because of preferences, such as capital gains, real tax reform is unavailable. Basically, this is due to the small tax base. Given the government needs, all we are doing in tex reform is changing the mix of the pie. By eliminating preferences, we are expanding the pie which will allow more flexibility for real tax reform. The potential reduction in marginal tax rates could also have a salutory effect on many currently unproductive tax activities (i.e. uneconomic tax shelters).

It should be noted that as of the completion of this study, a new income tax law is being enacted. Its direct effect on the capital gain or loss area is minimal, ${ }^{55}$ but its impact on the total tax system is significant. The analysis of this study could be applied to the new law.

## Conclusion

The capital gain or loss preference is not justified under any of the updated Adam Smith criteria for a good income tax. Not only does the preference violate all the criteria, but the complexity in the U.S. Income tax law attributable to the capital gain and loss preference exceeds $15 \%$ and affects $65 \%$ of all income tax sections. The consequences of this complexity is, at present, an unresearched area. This study uses the complexity attribute to develop a tax expenditure model (TEC) which will measure the relative efficiency of various preferences in the tax law.

This study demonstrates that the capital gain and loss preference creates a disproportionately large amount of complexity in the income tax law, is not justified under a Smithian criterion model, and is relatively inefficient.

Wall Street Journal, 5/19/81, Ed Moscovitch of Data Research Institute. See also Blueprints for Tax Reform in which a discussion of potential reduction in tax rates is also presented.

It might reduce the holding period from twelve months to six and, because the highest marginal tax rate is reduced from $70 \%$ to $50 \%$, the highest tax on C/G will be $20 \%$ ( $50 \% \times 40 \%$ ).

## Chapter VI - Citation

(32) Richard Goode, Individual Income Tax, p. 5.

## Lines vs. Paragraphs as Context Units: A Comparison

As previously discussed, the context unit of a line or a paragraph has been used in many content analysis studies. In order to add reliability to the study, it is appropriate to test whether there is any significant difference between lines or paragraphs as context units, assuming the recording unit (the capital gain and loss theme) is held constant.

I used a statistical sample of thirty-five code sections and their underlying regulations using both lines and paragraphs as the estimator. I numbered all code sections from 1 to 580. (This experiment was done prior to the complete study, so some of the numbers may be slightly different.) A random generating number table was used to choose the thirty-five code section sample. Any generating number above 580 was disregarded and the next number in rotation was used. The attached table shows the thirty-five code sections randomly chosen, their count of both lines and paragraphs, the line or paragraph complexity due to capital gain and loss provisions, the weight of each section, and statistics necessary to complete the experiment.

My hypothesis (Ho) is that the two proportions from the same population are equal, and the alternative hypothesis (Ha) is that the two proportions from the population are not equal. A priori, I had no particular reason to assume that line proportion would be larger or smaller than paragraph proportion, so $I$ used a two-tail test. I used a test for significant differences. If I reject Ho, the null hypothesis, then $I$ have an $88 \%$ chance of doing so falsely. This Is because the $Z$ statistic is .152376 which means that the reject region is very large (. 44 on each side). The test supports the conclusion that the lines or paragraphs analyzed will give equivalent results. I decided for reasons given in Chapter III to utilize a paragraph approach.

## SAMPLE VARIANCE AND TESTING FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES

|  | Paragraphs | Lines |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ mean | .0022776 | .002005 |
| $\mathrm{~S}^{2} \mathrm{x}$ | .0000521 | .0000587 |
| Sx | .0072 | .0077 |
| N | 35 | 35 |

STANDARD ERROR OF SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION

$$
\begin{aligned}
S \bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2} & =\sqrt{\frac{\left(S x_{1}\right)^{2}}{N_{1}}+\frac{\left(S x_{2}\right)^{2}}{N_{2}}} \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{.0000521}{35}+\frac{.0000587}{35}} \\
& =\sqrt{.0000015+.0000017} \\
S x_{1}-x_{2} & =\frac{.001789}{z} \\
z & =\frac{\left(\bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2}\right)-\left(\mu x_{1}-\mu x_{2}\right)}{.0002726}=\delta \bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2} \\
z & =.152376
\end{aligned}
$$

PARAGRAPHS
RaNDOM GENERATED CODE SECTIONS statistical sample on testinc for SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
paracraphs and lines

| (2) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Section | Relative | Z Of Section | (2) $\times(3)$ | $\left\|x_{1}-\bar{x}\right\|$ | (s) |

Section WGT. Attrib. To C/G/L

| 31 | . 46707 | 2 | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 41 | 1.8683 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 43 | 2.008 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 77 | . 327 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 113 | . 0934 | $\chi$ | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 116 | 1.074 | z | 4.34783 | $z$ | . 00047 | . 00181 | . 000003 |
| 162 | 7.613 | 2 | 5.5215 | 2 | . 00420 | .00192 | . 000004 |
| 179 | 2.429 | $x$ | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 219 | 3.1761 | z | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 338 | . 0467 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 422 | 3.97 | \% | 10.588 | \% | . 00420 | . 00192 | . 000004 |
| 481 | 4.858 | 2 | . 96154 | \% | . 00047 | . 00181 | . 000003 |
| 528 | 2.896 | 2 | 1.613 | \% | . 000467 | . 00181 | . 000003 |
| 558 | . 0467 | 2 | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 563 | . 3737 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 636 | 2.1485 | 2 | 8.6957 | \% | . 0019 | . 00038 | . 00000014 |
| 673 | . 8407 | \% | 5.556 | $\chi$ | . 0005 | . 00178 | . 0000032 |
| 709 | . 654 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 754 | . 234 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 841 | . 1868 | $\%$ | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 951 | 2.4755 | \% | 1.8868 | \% | . 00047 | . 001808 | . 0000033 |
| 953 | 6.399 | \% | 3.65 | \% | . 00234 | . 00006 | - |
| 970 | 3.783 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 971 | 3.363 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1012 | 2.943 | \% | 36.508 | 2 | . 0107 | . 00842 | . 000071 |
| 1054 | . 14 | $z$ | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1247 | 4.531 | $x$ | 30.928 | z | . 014 | . 0117224 | . 000137 |
| 1302 | 1.448 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1371 | 2.01153 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1443 | . 794 | 2 | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1481 | . 654 | $x$ | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1482 | . 28 | z | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1494 | . 374 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1501 | . 093 | \% | - |  | - | . 0022776 | . 000005 |
| 1502 | 35.4 | $\underline{z}$ | 11.214 | $\underline{7}$ | . 04 | . 03772 | . 001423 |
|  | 100.00 | $z$ | 121.47 | \% | . 079717 |  | . 0017696 |

MEAN $\bar{x}=\frac{.079717}{35}=.0022776$

$$
S x^{2}=\frac{\xi[x-\bar{x}]^{2}}{N-1}=\frac{.0017696}{34}=.0000521
$$

$S x=.0072$

## PARAGRAPHS - RAW DATA



WGT AVERAGE: $\frac{170}{2141}=7.94025 \%$
SIMPLE AVERAGE: $\frac{121.47}{35}=3.47 \%$

LINES
random generated code sections statistical sample on testing for SIGNificant difference between
paragraphs and lines

| (1) | (2) |  | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Section ${ }^{\text {' }}$ | Relative <br> Section WCT. |  | z of Section Attrib. To C/G/L | (2) $\times$ (3) | $\left\|x_{2}-\bar{x}\right\|$ | $(S)^{2}$ |
| 31 | . 4995 | 2 | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 41 | . 898 | 2 | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 43 | 1.25 | 2 | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 77 | . 253 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 113 | . 037 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 116 | . 665 | \% | $2.538 \%$ | . 00017 | . 00184 | . 0000034 |
| 162 | 9.62 | \% | 5.441 \% | . 005 | . 003 | . 000009 |
| 279 | 2.994 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 219 | 1.46 | 2 | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 338 | . 0068 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 422 | 5.37 | 2 | 13.27 \% | . 007 | . 005 | . 000025 |
| 481 | 5.81 | $x$ | $.581 \%$ | . 0003 | . 00171 | . 000003 |
| 528 | 1.58 | $\pi$ | $2.14 \%$ | . 0003 | . 00171 | . 000003 |
| 558 | . 0068 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 563 | . 213 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 636 | 2.87 | 2 | 3.41 \% | . 001 | . 001 | . 000001 |
| 673 | . 797 | 2 | . 848 \% | . 0001 | . 002 | . 000004 |
| 709 | . 361 | $z$ | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 754 | . 432 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 842 | . 047 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 951 | 3.32 | \% | 1.3 \% | . 0004 | . 00161 | . 000003 |
| 953 | 9.85 | \% | 1.7 \% | . 002 | . 000005 | - |
| 970 | 4.75 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 971 | 3.27 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1012 | 3.396 | \% | 43.84 \% | . 0149 | . 0129 | . 00017 |
| 1054 | . 135 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1247 | 3.99 | \% | 30.3 \% | . 012 | . 01 | . 0001 |
| 1302 | . 73 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1371 | 2.2549 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1443 | . 884 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1481 | . 334 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1482 | . 064 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1494 | . 358 | \% | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1501 | . 064 | 2 | - | - | . 002005 | . 000004 |
| 1502 | 31.43 | $\underline{z}$ | 8.51 \% | . 027 | . 025 | . 00063 |
|  | 100.00 | \% | 113.878 \% | . 07017 |  | . 0019948 |

$\operatorname{MEAN} \overline{\mathrm{x}}=\frac{.07017}{35}=.002005$

$$
S x^{2}=\frac{\xi[x-\bar{x}]^{2}}{N-1}=.00005867
$$

$$
S x=.0077
$$

LINES - RAW DATA


## APPENDIX B

## COMPARISON OF THE PRESENT STUDY AND SCHROEDER'S STUDY

As discussed in Chapter III, the present study differs in various ways from Jack Schroeder's "Potential Simplification of the Federal Income Tax Law by Eliminating Special Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses". In order to improve the validity of the present measurement model and to highlight differences between our two studies, an analysis of all code section classification variations was performed. There were 480 common code sections in our two studIes (between 1973 and 1979 many law changes were introduced, and he only included Chapter 1 of the Internal Revenue Code). The classification of the capital gain or loss impact on an individual code section was rated none, some, or all in his study, while mine assigns a quantitative theme per paragraph rating. We differed on $40 \%$ of the common sections. Of the 191 different sections, 119 were sections that the present analysis showed five paragraphs or less being impacted by the capital gain or loss preference while his classification showed none. Using a de minimis rule and because of the different measurement models (his had only three discrete classifications, while mine is a more coutinuous function), I decided not to investigate these variations. The remaining 72 common code sections' variations ( $15 \%$ of total common sections) were analyzed as to differences. The following table lists the 72 code sections. The 72 sections were deemed correctly classified in the current study.

| Code Section \# | Schroeder Classification | Present Classification $\qquad$ | Disposition |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | some | none | change in law removed alternative tax on C/G - no change required |
| 56 | none | 8 | tax preference includes capital gain and timber no change to mine required |
| 63 | some | none | defines taxable income no change to mine |
| $\begin{aligned} & 173,177, \\ & 178,179 \end{aligned}$ | some | none | expense vs. capitalize, a timing problem - no change to mine |
| 183 | none | 10 | see section 1.183-1 (b) (4), for example - no change to mine |
| 219 | some | none | no justification for his, no lump-sum distribution rules apply - no change to mine |
| 241, 244 | some | none | no justification - no change to mine |
| 248 | some | none | timing difference - no change to mine |
| 261 | some | none | 1f any part of a subpart is affected by the preference, he taints the whole subpart - no change to mine |
| 278 | some | none | timing difference - no change to mine |
| 305 | none | 122 | major conceptual error by Schroeder, section attempts to prevent conversion of dividend income into capital gain, regulations discuss this - no change to mine |


| Code <br> Section \# | Schroeder <br> Classification | Present Classification in Paragraphs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 336 | none | 2 |
| 338 | some | none |
| 346 | none | 22 |
| 355 | none | 36 |
| 362 | some | none |
| 367 | none | 215 |
| 368 | none | 6 |
| 372 | some | none |
| 385 | none | 10 |
| 421 | none | 16 |
| 482 | none | 15 |
| 531, 541 | some | none |
| $\begin{aligned} & 534,536, \\ & 544,546, \\ & 547,554, \\ & 557,558, \\ & 561,563, \end{aligned}$ | some | none |
| $\begin{gathered} 612,614, \\ 671 \end{gathered}$ | none | 8, 13, 8 |
| 681 | none | 8 |

Disposition
serious error by Schroeder, he ignores depreciation recapture implicit in section - no change to mine
no change to mine
serious error by Schroeder, if partial liquidation status present, you avoid much of 301/302 dichotomy - no change to mine
major error by Schroeder, O.I./C.G. is crucial to this area - no change
no change
major error by Schroeder, prevents avoidance of tax in foreign reorganization area - no change

1978 change in law with investment companies - no change
no change
serious error, bond vs. stock classification and C/G/L effect - no change
qualified stock option, C.G. vs. O.I. - no change regulations discuss shifting of $C / G / L$ among related parties - no change

Schroeder counts introductions to an area, I don't - no change

Schroeder counts the whole area as being tainted, if any part is affected by preference - no change
regulations discuss C/G/L
area - no change
unrelated business income
involves $C / G / L$ - no change

| Code <br> Section \# | Schroeder Classification | Present Classification $\qquad$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 732, 736 | none | 17,14 |
| 754 | some | none |
| 844 | some | none |
| 851 | none | 11 |
| 855 | none | 6 |
| 856 | none | 21 |
| 858 | none | 6 |
| $\begin{gathered} 861,862, \\ 864 \end{gathered}$ | none | 18, 8, 57 |
| 882 | none | 7 |
| 904 | none | 23 |
| 954, 955 | none | 18, 10 |
| 1001, 1014 | none | 10, 10 |
| 1031 | none | 12 |
| 1034 | none | 9 |
| 1035, 1036 | none | 3,4 |
| 1038 | none | 31 |
| 1101 | none | 20 |
| 1301, 1302 | some | none |
| 1312 | none | 8 |
| 1348 | none | 7 |
| 1372, 1373 | none | 7,7 |

## APPENDIX C

## TOP TEN COMPLEX CODE SECTION SURVEY

To test the internal validity of my findings, a panel of nine individuals with extensive tax backgrounds and varied tax experiences (educational, public and private practice, corporate, and government) were informally polled. They were asked to list the ten income tax code sections (or areas) in Chapters 1-6, Sections 1-1564 of the Internal Revenue Code that they considered the most complex. The attached tabulation gives the results of this polling (see Table 13). Several strengths of my measurement model are reinforced by this panel's findings. Eighty-nine selections were named by the nine participants. Due to a consensus among the independent participants, forty-four areas were depicted as complex. This would scem to imply that there is some basic agreement among experts as to what areas of the tax law are complex. The areas selected by the tax experts represented $40 \%$ of the tax law's complexity using my measurement model. Thus, less than $5 \%$ of the code sections (areas), gives rise to $40 \%$ of its complexity. This strengthens my basic assumption (vis a vis Schroeder's) that each code section is not equally complex.

Comparing the top ten on a paragraph basis, with the panel's conclusions, the following is apparent:

FIGURE 5
COMPARISON OF PANEL'S AND PARAGRAPHS'S TOP TEN

Top 10 Paragraph Code Sections

401
167
1502
170
46
103
48
381
72
1250

No. of Times Mentioned in Panel's Tcp 10 Survey

314210140

Thus, 8 out of the top 10 paragraph complexity sections developed under my measurement model were selected by the experts as highly complex and these sections represented $20 \%$ ( 18 out of 89) of the panel's selections. Given the choice of 10 out of 584 code sections, there is obviously more than a random selection process at work. If the paragraph measurement is expanded to the top 50 code sections, then 22 out of 44 sections chosen by the tax panel are included, which represents 57\% (51 selections out of 89) of the total selections. If this analysis were extended, then the following graph would depict the relationship between the tax panel's and the measurement model's findings:

FIGURE 6


This graph clearly shows that the panel's selections are substantially covered (93\%) by the top 200 code sections (by paragraphs). This would confirm my hypothesis that paragraphs are a good measure of complexity and rebut the potential argument that more paragraphs means clearer explanations and less complexity.

Another interesting finding that can be derived from the tax panel study is that of the 44 code section areas chosen, only four (9\%) were not affected by the capital gain or loss preference. This is to be contrasted with the more general conclusion of Chapter IV, that $35 \%$ of all code sections are not affected in some way by the $C / G / L$ preference. This would imply that the C/G/L preference has a higher than normal impact on the tax panel's selection and that the $C / G / L$ preference is a major cause of the complexity of the chosen sections.

APPENDIX C - TABLE 13
INFORMAL POLLING - TOP 10 COMPLEX CODE SECTIONS (AREAS)

| $\begin{gathered} \text { CODE SECT:ON } \\ \text { OR } \\ \text { AREA } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | NUMBER OF TIMES CITED BY PANEL | NUMBER OF PARAGRAPHS | COMPLEXITY <br> RANKING | COMPLEXITY WGT UNDER MEASUREMENT MODEL | C/G/L COMPLEXITY ATTRIBUTABLE TO THESE SECTIONS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 46-48 | 1 | 1428 | 5 | $3.5 \%$ | Yes |
| 167 | 1 | 811 | 2 | $2.0 \%$ | Yes |
| 170 | 2 | 655 | 4 | $1.6 \%$ | Yes |
| 172 | 1 | 299 | 20 | . $74 \%$ | Yes |
| 269 | 1 | 29 | 311 | .07\% | Yes |
| 305 | 1 | 137 | 79 | . $34 \%$ | Yes |
| 312 | 1 | 111 | 101 | . $27 \%$ | Yes |
| 334 | 1 | 61 | 187 | . $15 \%$ | Yes |
| 341 | 6 | 251 | 29 | .62\% | Yes |
| 367 | 1 | 281 | 23 | .69\% | Yes |
| 368 | 7 | 64 | 176 | . 16\% | Yes |
| 381-383 | 4 | 753 | 8 | 1.86\% | Yes |
| 385 | 2 | 240 | 35 | . $59 \%$ | Yes |
| 401-404 | 3 | 1622 | 1 | 4.0\% | Yes |
| 411-412 | 1 | 637 | 14 | 1.57\% | No |
| 465 | 1 | 260 | 27 | .64\% | Yes |
| 471-472 | 3 | 276 | 77 | .68\% | No |
| 481 | 2 | 104 | 110 | . $26 \%$ | Yes |
| 482 | 3 | 176 | 62 | .44\% | Yes |
| 501-504 | 3 | 455 | 19 | 1.12\% | Yes |
| 507 | 1 | 230 | 39 | .57\% | Yes |
| 613-613A | 1 | 483 | 26 | 1.19\% | Yes |
| 661-664 | 1 | 309 | 61 | .76\% | Yes |
| 667 | 1 | 39 | 270 | .09\% | Yes |
| 671-679 | 1 | 176 | 218 | . 47 | Yes |
| 731-736 | 2 | 132 | 260 | .32\% | Yes |
| 743 | 1 | 28 | 319 | . $07 \%$ | Yes |
| 751 | 1 | 100 | 116 | .25\% | Yes |
| 804-806 | 1 | 200 | 117 | .49\% | Yes |
| 861-863 | 3 | 503 | 11 | $1.24 \%$ | Yes |
| 901-908 | 3 | 666 | 21 | 1.65\% | Yes |

TABLE 13

| $\begin{gathered} \text { CODE SECTION } \\ \text { OR } \\ \text { AREA } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | NUMBER OF TIMES CITED BY PANEL | NUMBER OF PARAGRAPHS | COMPLEXITY RANKING | COMPLEXITY WGT UNDER MEASUREMENT MODEL | C/G/L COMPLEXITY ATTRIBUTABLE TO THESE SECTIONS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 913 | 1 | 199 | 50 | .49\% | No |
| 951-964 | 7 | 1763 | 13 | 4.36\% | Yes |
| 993 | 1 | 428 | 12 | $1.1 \%$ | Yes |
| 999 | 1 | 78 | 147 | .19\% | No |
| 1231 | 2 | 61 | 188 | . $15 \%$ | Yes |
| 1232 | 1 | 196 | 52 | . $48 \%$ | Yes |
| 1234 | 1 | 59 | 194 | . $15 \%$ | Yes |
| 1245 | 2 | 194 | 53 | .48\% | Yes |
| 1248 | 2 | 286 | 22 | . $71 \%$ | Yes |
| 1250 | 2 | 435 | 10 | 1.08\% | Yes |
| 1311-1314 | 3 | 169 | 188 | .42\% | Yes |
| 1373 | 1 | 29 | 316 | .07\% | Yes |
| 1501-1502 | 4 | 760 | 3 | $1.9 \%$ | Yes |
|  | 89 | 16,173 |  | 39.91\% |  |

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[^0]:    6 See Bernard Berelson, Content Analysis in Communication Research, (New York: Free Press Publication, 1952), and Thomas F. Carney, Content Analysis - A Technique for Systematic Inference from Cormunications, (Winnipeg, Canada: University of Manitoba Press, 1972).

    Tax expenditure is a concept developed by Stanley S. Surrey in 1967 and elaborated on in his book Pathways to Tax Reform. It is now part of the Congressional Budget Office's annual reporting. Surrey defines tax expenditures as special exemptions, exclusions, deductions, credits, and other tax benefits which are methods of providing government financing. See also Tax Expenditures - A Primer, U.S. General Accounting Office, Publication 80-26 (1979).

[^1]:    8 See Richard Musgrave and Peggy Musgrave, Public Finance in Theory and Practice, 2nd edition (New York: McGraw Hill, 1976), p. 210; Joseph A. Pechman, Federal Tax Policy (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1977), p. 5; U.S. Department of Treasury, Blueprints for Basic Tax Reform (January 17, 1977), p. 1.

    Musgrave and Musgrave, Public Finance, p. 216, and Martin David, Alternative Approaches to Capital Gains Taxation (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1968), p. 53.

[^2]:    Arthur Andersen \& Co. - Subject File 1220/32 - Summary of Individual Taxation of Long-term Capital Gain and Short-term Capital Gain on Portfolio Stock Investments in Industrial Countries - 1980

[^3]:    17 See Anita Wells, "Legislative History of Treatment of Capital Gains Under Federal Income Tax 1913-1948", National Tax Journal 2 (1949): 12; U.S. Secretary of Treasury, Federal Income Tax Treatment of Capital Gains and Losses (1951); and Seltzer, Nature and Tax Treatment.

[^4]:    44
    For a discussion of the inefficiency involved in the tax preference concept, see Jacqueline Browning, "A Microcconomic Analysis of Tax Preference in the Federal Individual Income Tax", (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Virginia, 1976).

    See Business Week, May 20, 1980.

[^5]:    In some circumstances profits
    from the sale of standing timbe:
    may be ta\%ed at the lower capital gains rates instead of the ordinary rates.

[^6]:    Employer educa-
    tional assistance
    

